

Linguistic Landscapes of Multilingual Campuses in China and Japan : From the Perspective of Language Policy, Construction of Signs and Students' Attitudes

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Linguistic Landscapes of Multilingual Campuses in China and Japan:
From the Perspective of Language Policy, Construction of Signs and Students' Attitudes
(中日多言語キャンパスの言語景観研究—言語政策、標識の構成、学生の態度の視点から)

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DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this dissertation to the memory of my beloved grandma Wu Shuyun.

ABSTRACT

This research project examines university campus signs in China and Japan, which is a new attempt to expand the scope of linguistic landscape research. It is also one of the earliest studies focusing on multilingual linguistic landscape of China. Multilingual linguistic landscapes are productive sources of sociolinguistic information, but previous studies have mostly analyzed urban areas. Based on the three dimensions put forward by Trumper-Hecht (2010), who developed Lefebvre's (1991) notion of "Space" and saw linguistic landscape as a sociolinguistic-spatial phenomenon, this study brings linguistic landscape research into the context of multilingual campuses stimulated by internationalization and intends to explore: first, how languages used in signs are regulated or planned in both countries ("Conceived Space"-"Political" Dimension"); second, how the campus linguistic landscape is constructed ("Spatial Space"-"Physical" Dimension); third, how the sign readers (students) view the multilingual campus where they are living ("Lived Space"-"Experiential" Dimension).

From a sociolinguistic perspective, I first examine campus linguistic landscapes by utilizing the framework of Hymes' "Speaking Model" (1972). I explore the language policies and regulations regarding language use ("Norms") in public spheres at various levels in both countries. Then, I analyze "Genres" that characterizes the linguistic landscape within a given "Setting and Scene" on campus, where their "Ends" are specified and "Participants" are illuminated. Making use of Scollon and Scollon's (2003) work on Geosemiotics and Kress and Van Leeuwen's (1998) work on the grammar of design, I investigate the construction of campus linguistic landscape, which also contributes to the

sociolinguistic analysis. Gottlieb (2008, p. 59) notes, "...Language policy, far from being merely a collection of documents supplemented by government practice, is informed by and encapsulates the entire linguistic culture of a society, that is, its specific beliefs about language." The multilingual university's linguistic landscape also reflects the views of the multilingual and multi-ethnic community on campus. Therefore, I conduct questionnaire and interview surveys to explore the students' attitudes towards the multilingual campus.

The multilingual signboards displayed on campus are "precipitates" motivated by the progress of globalization (Appadurai, 2000). As the pace of internationalization speeds up, English in particular has grown in importance in the campus linguistic landscape. Based on the sociolinguistic examination of the language policies and regulations of both countries ("Norms"), this study finds that the Chinese government gives a "silent consent" towards the adoption of foreign languages in signs in public places. In Japan, it is local governments that make more practical efforts in the promotion of foreign languages used in signs.

Next, I identify "Genres" in the campus linguistic landscape with descriptive analysis. These "Genres" further divide campus into different functional areas, which depict "Settings". Inspired by Hymes' illustration of "Ends", I modify Lü's (2005) classification of the function of signs into a new format for analyzing campus signs. Based on Landry and Bourhis' (1997) focus on the "symbolic" function of signs, I explore the indexicality of signs (Scollon & Scollon, 2003), which accounts for the impact of internationalization on the formation of multilingual campuses. In addition, I explicate three participants in the campus linguistic landscape: agents, audience and bystanders, which revises

the “top-down” vs. “bottom-up”, or “official” vs. “non-official” classification of actors in previous linguistic landscape studies.

The case studies on the languages used in signs on two campuses presents the features of the construction of campus linguistic landscape. On Kyushu University’s Ito Campus in Japan, bilingual Japanese-English signs compose the majority of campus signs, with Japanese language used as the dominant language. On Beijing Language and Culture University campus in China, unilingual Chinese signs are the largest group, followed by Chinese-English bilingual signs. A total of four and five foreign languages are used on campus signs respectively. Although university campuses do not show as rich a construction of linguistic landscape as the urban areas, they reflect the internationalization trend occurring on both campuses. Linguistic landscape research has been criticized for a lack of theoretical background. A geosemiotic (Scollon and Scollon, 2003) interpretation of campus linguistic landscapes in Chapter Six substantiates the descriptive analysis in Chapter Five. The survey finds that at least half of the campus signs adopted visual data into text, and both campuses put national languages in a preferred position in most cases to show their salience. More than half of the multilingual campus signs duplicate the exact information from the source languages. Also, more complex “Act Sequence”, which is an under-explored area in linguistic landscape study (Huebner, 2009), is considered, they are found most often in the unilingual Japanese or Chinese signs. Those findings also account for the “Key” and “Instrumentalities” of the campus linguistic landscape, thereby covering all eight components of Hymes’ “Speaking Model”.

The questionnaire surveys students' perceptions about the use of languages on campus, their choices on language use and order in the campus signboards, and their opinions on the importance of languages used on campus. The opinions of sign readers are regarded as "A Third Dimension" (Trumper-Hecht, 2010), which derives from Lefebvre's (1991) idea of "Lived Space"--the space of inhabitants. The results indicate that there is a difference in students' impression of the most often used language on campus and the actual construction of the campus linguistic landscape. For their academic life, students from both campuses value bilingual ability; in their daily life, students maintain multilingual contact to a certain degree. The first four languages chosen by the students are in conformity with the language usage in reality despite a difference in order.

This study is a synchronic record of the construction of the campus linguistic landscape, thus it provides a basis for comparative and diachronic studies in the future. The exploration of language policy concerning signs substantiates our understanding of the formation of campus linguistic landscape, which differs from previous studies, which often focus on conflicts between different language groups. The interdisciplinary nature of linguistic landscape research could inspire Chinese scholars to address the gap in studying signs between China and other countries. Moreover, this study, adding geosemiotic interpretation to sociolinguistic analysis, further substantiates the linguistic landscape research. Since the signboards on campus provide authentic native language input for second language learners, as indicated by Cenoz & Gorter (2008), linguistic landscape is also a useful site for conducting second language acquisition research.

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

The introductory chapter presents an overview of this research project. It starts with the background of the development of linguistic landscape (LL) research, and then discusses the language situation in China and Japan in general. The framework of this study is clarified in section 1.4, and following that the research significance is demonstrated. At the end of this chapter, the structure of this dissertation is provided.

1.2 Brief History and Development of Linguistic Landscape

Over the past 40 years or so, the investigation on the languages used in the public sphere has been the research interest of many scholars worldwide, and in particular the urban linguistic landscape has become a popular research subject. In reality, we are surrounded by a variety of elements of linguistic landscape in our daily lives, as we are situated in a linguistic and semiotic world. Early on in the development of this field, many researchers studied only the languages used in the linguistic landscape, but there has been a tendency in recent years to include other elements in the linguistic landscape. Durk Gorter (2006), focusing on texts in the linguistic landscape, stated, "Language is all around us in textual form as it is displayed on shop windows, commercial signs, posters, official notices, traffic signs, etc. Most of the time people do not pay much attention to the 'linguistic landscape' that surrounds them" (p. 1). Shohamy & Gorter (2009, p. 1) expanded the scope of linguistic landscape research and stressed, "It is the attention to language in the environment, words and images displayed and exposed in public spaces, that is the center of attention

in this rapidly growing area referred to as *linguistic landscape* (LL).” According to Peter Backhaus’ examination (2007, p. 56) of previous studies, the study of signs can be traced to as early as 1972. Moreover, because of advancements in the technology of photography and recording, documenting the linguistic landscape becomes more convenient (Gorter, 2006), which gives scholars a greater opportunity for diachronic analysis of signs within a given linguistic landscape.

The constantly increasing number of signs in different languages, accompanied by a variety of images, performing different writing styles and design, and bringing visual impact, gradually form a unique scenery in cities, and thus compose the “linguistic landscape” or “linguistic cityscape”. As Backhaus (2007, p. ix) claims, “Essentially, the topic of interest is the choice of language in public signs in urban space (which is why ‘cityscape’ might be a preferable term).” Linguistic landscape research is a relatively new field of sociolinguistics and applied linguistics, and recent contributions to linguistic landscape from different perspectives exhibit a multidisciplinary characteristic. Elana Shohamy et al. (2010, p. xi) state, “This new area of study has developed in recent years as a field of interest and cooperation among linguists, sociolinguists, sociologists, psychologists, cultural geographers and several other disciplines.” They also emphasize that most of the linguistic landscape studies focus on the public space in terms of language usage, the visibility of each language and their variations and meanings with regard to culture, society, economy and policy. The progress of internationalization has caused great changes on the languages used in the public sphere of China and Japan, which portrayed the formation of current linguistic landscapes in both countries.

In China and Japan, two words, “Chinglish” and “Japlish”¹ account for the impact of English on their linguistic landscapes, which attracted the research interest of many scholars towards signs in the public sphere. For example, Oliver Lutz Radtke (aka Ji Shaorong), a German who went to China to study Chinese language in 2000, established a blog to post the public signs in Chinglish he collected during his initial five years’ study in SISU (Shanghai International Studies University); his blog is now regarded as a “Museum of Chinglish” (<http://www.chinglish.de/>) and attracted many other scholars’ attention. Stimulated by the Chinglish in the public signs, he compiled two books, *Chinglish: Found in Translation*, and *More Chinglish: Speaking in Tongues*, in which the vivid pictures display the linguistic landscape in front of the eyes of the readers. Similarly, the Engrish website (www.Engrish.com) has been documenting a variety of public signs in Japlish since 1996. As the website itself claims, “Engrish can be simply defined as the humorous English mistakes that appear in Japanese advertising and product design”. In addition to Japlish, this websites also accept many signs from readers from all over the world. Although the website claims that the signs are from advertising and products, actually the source of those signs is much broader than that, such as, signs in toilets and tourist places. Ji Shaorong, owner of the “Museum of Chinglish”, indicates that he collects the signs out of “passion” rather than “mockery”, and refers those humorous signs as “Chinglish beauties (the wonderful result of an English dictionary meeting Chinese grammar)”. Therefore, no matter who contributes to the effort-

¹ There are several expressions to describe the “creative” usage of English in Japan, “Japanized English” (Kenrich, 1988, 1992; Seaton, 2001), “Engrish” (www.english.com), “Made-in-Japan English” (MacGergor, 2003) and so on. “Japlish” is one of them, and some scholars also indicated that it is a derogatory term (Ikeshima, 2005; Larsen, 1993; Seaton, 2001).

consuming documentary of signs in the linguistic landscape, whether it be individual hobbies, or projects of research centers, there has been consistent interest towards signs in the public sphere.

As a relatively young sociolinguistic sub-discipline, linguistic landscape studies mainly focus on big cities (Backhaus, 2005; Kallen & Dhonnacha, 2010; Plessis, 2010; Spolsky & Copper, 1991; Schlick, 2002; Trumper-Hecht, 2010; Tulp, 1978), or town centers (Guilat, 2010; Schlick, 2003), which are supposed to be gathering places for a comparatively large number of people shopping, walking, sightseeing, eating and so on. Characterizing the linguistic landscape, signs in urban area have become an indispensable element to make the city stylish, modern and cosmopolitan. The variety of languages, scripts, images and other forms of artifacts displayed on signs attract the interest of researchers all over the world. Backhaus (2005), commenting on Roland Barthes' (1982) notion that Japan is an "empire of signs" in a semiotic sense, said that it is also true in a material sense. "It is a well-known fact that public spaces in Japan, particularly in urban environments, are plastered with all sorts of written discourse" (p. 103). It is also my personal experience that the repertoire of multilingual signs in the public sphere attracted me when I first came to Japan, which stimulated me to investigate more into the linguistic landscape. This same phenomenon is also true of China. Since the implementation of the "opening-up policy" in 1978, there has been an increasing need for English; with acceleration of globalization, displaying languages other than Chinese or providing English translation is an urgent need, which also helps establish a good international image at the same time. As a product of internationalization, the English-Chinese signs have drawn much attention from the Chinese translators and linguists. As an observer with

attentive eyes, the author has been collecting memories and ideas about the symbolic signs in the linguistic landscape in both China and Japan, and designs this research project in order to document the memorable signage of university campuses based on the general understanding of the representation of the linguistic landscapes in both countries.

1.3 Language Situations of China and Japan

This section will present a brief introduction and discussion of the background of language situations in both China and Japan from the viewpoints of both governments and researchers. I will account for how the two countries prescribe their national languages by introducing relevant laws or notions. Besides, the multilingual and multiethnic nature of both countries is explored. Finally, I will discuss the influence of internationalization progress on the language policy in education and the change in languages used in public sphere.

1.3.1 Focus on China

China is a multilingual, multidialectal and multiethnic country. The majority language group is the Han Chinese, but over 80 other languages are used among the 55 ethnic minorities according to official government statements (State Language Commission, 1995, p. 159).² According to *The Law of*

² The number of languages used in one country is often a political issue as well as linguistic one. Despite the official stipulation of minority languages in China, other sources recognize a greater number of languages. For example, *Ethnologue*, a reference work that catalogs languages of the world, states, "The number of individual languages listed for China is 299. Of these, 298 are living and 1 is extinct. Of the living languages, 14 are institutional, 23 are developing, 111 are vigorous, 122 are in trouble, and 28 are dying." While another article in the *Encyclopedia of Language and Linguistics* identified 10 language groups that contain more than 180 languages (Bradley, 2006). That article further described the varieties of Mandarin spoken by the majority Han Chinese. All in all, we see a multilinguistic, multiethnic, and multidialectal China.

the People's Republic of China on the Standard Spoken and Written Chinese Language, which was adopted at the 18th Meeting of the Standing Committee of the Ninth National People's Congress of the People's Republic of China in 2000 and promulgated in 2001 (MOE of China), Chapter I General Provisions, Article 8 says that “All the ethnic groups shall have the freedom to use and develop their own spoken and written languages”; Article 3 states “the State popularizes *Putonghua* and the standardized Chinese characters”. Those two Articles established that the official language of China is Chinese; the standard Chinese dialect is *Putonghua*; and the usage of minority language is respected. Since the majority of the minority languages are used more often in spoken form for daily communication, and only 21 out of the 55 minority peoples have a written form of their languages (Website of China in Brief), it is uncommon to see a large number of signs written in minority languages outside of the autonomous areas. The Chinese government had applied a bilingual education system (minority language and *Putonghua*) for the minority communities at the beginning of the foundation of the PRC for building a Chinese national identity (Nelson, 2005).³ With the adoption of the “One Country, Two Systems” policy after the return of Hong Kong and Macao, the Chinese government gave certain freedoms to the new autonomous regions. However, it greatly valued the ability of all citizens to speak “*Putonghua*” (Mandarin), and promoted it nationwide. According to statements of the Chinese government, minority languages are respected, but the

³ The language policy for minority groups of China has drawn many researchers attention (Lin, 1997; Nelson, 2005; Zhou, 2000; Zhou, & Sun, 2004). In the regions where the minority groups live in China, one can also find some signs written in minority languages in public sphere, which is another field worthy of study. For the current research, I will just focus on the coexistence of standardized Chinese and foreign languages, as those signs compose the majority of signs in the public domain of China.

actual practices vary among different regions. For example, in Tibet, the government's language efforts in schools have had the unintended consequence of making *Putonghua* less popular among the population, which resulted in a decrease in the literacy rate. The language policies make the minority people feel the imposition from the central government. Therefore, the government loses the trust from the minority group, which indicates the failure of language policies in Tibet (Wang & Phillion, 2009).

Moreover, there are many criticisms towards China's language policies for minority groups. Nelson (2005) pointed out that continued restrictions on the use of minority languages has both stalled efforts at raising literacy levels, and has often aroused resistance. It is to "quell potential rebellion" that Chinese government gives certain degree of autonomy to minority groups. Mandarin Chinese Mandarin (*Putonghua*), as the official language or dominant language, affects the minority language rights. Its wide use in every aspects of minority people's life prevents them to learn their own languages, which may cause the extinction of those languages. The lack of the ability of speaking Mandarin Chinese also makes the minority people realize the unfair employment opportunities (Zhou, 1999; Nelson, 2005; Nima, 2001).

With globalization, English is playing an ever more important role in China as a lingua franca for matters such as business, information, international travel etc. Moreover, English has been taught as the most important foreign language in China. The People's Republic of China since 2001 has carried out three main language policies (Lam, 2005):

1. The standardization of Chinese
2. The propagation of English

3. The development of minority languages

In previous studies, many scholars also pointed out the important role of English in language education. Hu (2005) cited studies by Adamson, Jin and Cortazzi, and Hu himself, which indicated that English language education, has become an important subject and has been regarded as great value for the country and individuals. Adamson and Morris, and Ross (as cited in Hu, 2005) also emphasize the importance of English in “national modernization and development”. Hu (2002, p. 6) notes “policies on basic English language education in China have been inextricably linked to political, economic, and social development in the country in the last 25 years or so.” He further points out “The central emphasis on the strategic role of English in the modernization process, the projected demand for human resources with good proficiency in English, and the marginal English provision in the school system made the reinstatement and expansion of English language education in top priority on the national agenda of educational development” (p. 7). The process of modernization and internationalization accelerated the changing of the role of English, which in turn brought new ideas for modernization and internationalization. The Curriculum and Teaching Materials Research Institute (CTMRI) (as cited in Hu, 2005) claims,

“Thus, English was recognized as an important tool for engaging in economic, commercial, technological and cultural exchange with the rest of the world and hence for facilitating the modernization process (CTMRI, 2001, p. 120)”.

The Ministry of Education completed the first draft of an English education framework in 1978, in which it suggested foreign language education start at Primary 3rd grade (Liu, 1993; Hu, 2005). In the last ten years or so, the

English competence of college students has been considered a decisive factor in university graduation. Moreover, with the ever-increasing number of students who are eager to study abroad, the importance of English and its impact on the evaluation of one's comprehensive ability has been highly strengthened. As Niu and Wolff (2003, p. 30) note, "The teaching of English as a second language in China has become a nationwide endeavor pursued at all academic levels, from kindergarten to university." In addition, the education in other foreign languages was also on the agenda. In 1979, the Ministry of Education promulgated an instruction on strengthening foreign language education. It works as a guideline and states that its main task is teaching English at present, but attention should also be given to Japanese, French, German, Russian and other common languages. This instruction also indicates that the number of the students who learn a certain language depends on the place they are studying, for example, the learners of Japanese and Russian mainly reside in the northeast of China and Inner Mongolia (Hu, 2001). Therefore, the balanced development of different foreign languages education has been under the control of Chinese government.

As the pace of globalization is speeding up, the increasing presence of English can be found in China's landscape. The booming of Chines-English signs displayed in the public sphere has drawn many Chinese scholars' research interests. On the basis of a large quantity of studies on translation practices, many translators and scholars call for the legislation to improve and guarantee the quality of public signs' translation. Beijing, the capital, as a pioneer, first compiled the *General Specification on English Translation of Public Signs* in 2006, which was a starting point for accelerating the normalization of public sign translation. Shenzhen City followed, and published the *Chinese-English*

Dictionary of Public Signs in Shenzhen in 2010, which was supported by the Shenzhen government and the Translators Association of Shenzhen. Therefore, there is a booming of bilingual Chinese-English signs in the public places in China. Moreover, one can find many different foreign languages decorating big cities as well. Although some researchers hold that there is no necessity to make signs in foreign languages except English (Sun, 2009), as the world changes, and the linguistic environment changes, further investigation into the multilingual signs in China is irresistible.

1.3.2. Focus on Japan

Japan is an island country with a population of approximately 130 million, of which 98.5 % are ethnically Japanese. Koreans (0.5%) compose the largest ethnic minority group of Japan, and Chinese (0.4%) are Japan's "second-largest old comer community" (World Factbook; Gottlieb, 2008). The number of Koreans settled down in Japan rose up to 625,422 in 2001, which composes 33.8% of the total population of permanent residents (Noguchi, 2001). Gottlieb (2008) indicates the number of Chinese people (including people from Taiwan, Macao and Hong Kong) rose to 487, 570 by 2004. Thus nationals from Korean and China make up the majority of the ethnic minority community of Japan. This also explains why one can find many signs displayed in Korean only or Chinese only in many public places in Japan. Many scholars note that the official status of the Japanese language has not been directly stated in the national laws of Japan. Igarashi & Kess (2004, p. 15) also note "Japanese is nowhere declared as an official language in specific legislation, such as the Constitution, the Education Law, the Citizenship Law, and the Broadcast Law..." In effect, although there is no

specific legal stipulation, the notion of recognizing Japanese as the national language of Japan is widely held by most of the citizens.⁴

Moreover, Japanese government has not given clear statements on its multi-ethnic nature either. Gottlieb (2009) notes “Throughout its modern history, Japan has considered itself monolingual for purposes of nation-building rhetoric, despite the presence of substantial ethnic minorities”. For instance, Ainu people, who chiefly reside in Hokkaido, are an indigenous minority group of Japan. Although the promulgation of Ainu Culture Promotion (Council for Ainu Policy Promotion, 1997) considered the Ainu as “indigenous people”, there is still social resistance to recognizing them as “true Japanese”. Sugimoto, as cited in Liddicoat (2007, p. 34), writing about the Japanese hegemonic discourse on race called *Nihonjinron*, stated, “*Nihonjinron* defines the Japanese in racial terms with *Nihonjin* comprising most members of the Yamato race and excludes, for example, indigenous Ainu and Okinawans as groups who are administratively Japanese, but not ‘genuinely’ so”. Liddicoat (2007, p. 42) pointed the contradictions in the *Nihonjinron* discourse of cultural homogeneity and claimed:

In academic discourses about language in Japan, there is increasing emphasis on the linguistic and cultural diversity of Japan. The discourse of cultural homogeneity that underlies *Nihonjinron* and upon which discourses of internationalization based on an assumed homogenous Japanese worldview are being increasingly challenged.

Backhaus (2009) points out that Japan is transitioning from a highly “monolingual” country to a true multilingual and multiethnic one, because of the

⁴ All the legal/administrative texts are written in Japanese with some translation in English and other languages. The use of Japanese is presupposed in those texts, for example, in the Court Act (Law), Article 74 states, “In the court, the Japanese language shall be used”; Other laws related to education also takes the status of Japanese for granted without claiming the official status of Japanese (Agency for Cultural Affairs, 2012; MEXT, 2000).

significant increasing number of foreigners who have settled in Japan. Gottlieb (2012) noted that the number of registered foreign residents had risen to 2 million by the end of 2008. As he (2009) states:

Japan is an emerging multilingual society. The appearance in communities and schools of residents whose first language is not Japanese has led to growing awareness of multilingualism in local areas, confounding any notion of national monolingualism. While Japanese is of course the major language used in Japan, it is by no means the only one.

Japan's language policy can be observed in terms of national language education and foreign language education, in particular, English education. The official status of Japanese has been taken for granted by its citizens; in addition, the focus of the national language policy is on orthography and improving its education (Saruhashi & Takeshita, 2008). Igarashi and Kess' (2004) study document several language policies concerning language education by The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sport, Science and Technology [MEXT]. For instance, the new Course of Study, a standard curriculum carried out by the Japanese government in 2002, was established for the purpose of the improving education of basic subjects, especially for the students' English competence. This curriculum encouraged the students in elementary and secondary schools to learn foreign languages, but in fact, English was given priority. In 2003, MEXT implemented a five-year *Action Plan to Cultivate the Japanese with English Abilities*, for the purpose of improving the quality of English Language education.

The rapid progress of globalization played an important role in the plan and design of language education in Japan and promoted the status of English. The 2002 Course of Study put forward by the Ministry of Education for languages indicates (as cited in Liddicoat, 2007, p. 36), "For compulsory foreign

language instruction, English should be selected in principle". This statement consolidates the supremacy of English among foreign languages. As the above *Action Plan* (Monbusho, 2003) claims grasping English is a requirement for the students in the 21st century, as English works as an international lingua franca that promotes the communication among people from different countries.

Igarashi & Kess (2004) also stress the impact of globalization, and state: " 'Internationalization' is currently one of the major language policy aims in Japan, with the stated objective of improving English abilities on the part of Japanese so as to enable the country to take a more active role internationally" (p. 13). In Saruhashi and Takeshita's (2008, p. 6) study, they mention, "Recent increase in the number and distribution of foreign tourists and residents, which reflects aspects of globalization, press various social domains to provide multilingual services." Therefore, the progress of being globalized further promotes the need for English. The Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications (IAC) has been making efforts for a multicultural society through improving a variety of services provided for foreign residents, which indicates that Japan as a multilingual society is "accepting" minority groups willingly (Saruhashi & Takeshita, 2008). As Igarashi & Kess (2004) also note that the Japanese government was taking practical steps to incorporate minority groups as a way of realizing internationalization.

To summarize, although there is no explicit stipulation that Japanese is the official language, it has a position of authority as the dominant language of Japan. The Japanese government works towards internationalization, which has promoted English Language education and international communication.

Liddicoat (2007, P. 35) notes, "Language planning for foreign education in Japan

has taken place within a broader educational policy of internationalization.” There is an increasing presence of English and other foreign languages in the public sphere, which composes a unique linguistic landscape of Japan and has drawn many scholars’ research interest (Backhaus, 2005; Backhaus, 2007; MacGregor, 2003; Masai, 1972; Seargeant, 2011; Someya, 2002). The multilingualism in big cities, such as Tokyo, was first surveyed. The Tokyo metropolitan government is also among the first to make regulations for the use of foreign languages in public signage. Moreover, governments at both central and local levels have been working for making guidelines for the display of multilingual signs for developing tourism, providing convenience to foreign residents lives, and so on.

1.4 Framework of This Study

This study on the campus linguistic landscape of China and Japan brings campus linguistic landscape into a new context—multilingual campus stimulated in the background of internationalization. The process of globalization, which brings many new experiences into people’s life, affects both China and Japan. Cities, as the forefront of confronting the differences and shocks from outside, first experienced those changes. Many previous studies focused on the urban areas where the emergence of linguistic and cultural diversity can be observed. For example, Gorter & Cenoz (2008, p. 343) state, “The highest density of signs can be found in cities and towns, in particular in the main shopping streets, commercial and industrial areas.” In early studies, more attention has been given to the multi-ethnic and multi-lingual communities in places like Israel, Quebec, Belgium where there had been linguistic conflicts. However, the current

research on universities selects a new perspective by situating linguistic landscape in a different linguistic ecology. As cited from Hornberger and Hult's study, Hult (2010, p. 88) indicates "The ecology of language approach calls upon researchers to pay attention to several dimensions of multilingualism at the same time: relationships among languages, among social contexts for languages, and among speakers of languages." Those illuminations from the perspective of language ecology are also concerns of analyzing campus linguistic landscape. The progress of internationalization has been encouraging more people to go aboard, learn and experience a different society, thus the multilingual campus as a "precipitate" of globalization come into existence (Appadurai, 2000). The increasing number of overseas students on campuses is creating multilingual and multiethnic communities, which also brings challenges and changes for the display of different languages on campus. It also changes the way the policy makers regulate signs and how the "inhabitants" view them. I believe these communities are worthy of study, and such a study will enrich the field of linguistic landscape research.

This study is not intended to compare or contrast the linguistic landscape of China and Japan. Instead, it aims to investigate the campus linguistic landscape from three perspectives: language policy, construction of campus linguistic landscape and students' attitudes. As Trumper-Hecht (2010) indicated the combination of those aspects could generate a deeper understanding of the linguistic landscape, which is seen as a "sociolinguistic-spatial" phenomenon. He developed three dimensions of space proposed by Lefebvre in *The Production of Space* (1991, p.237) and explicates that the "spatial practice" can be seen as the "physical" dimension that demonstrates "the actual distribution of languages

used on signs”; the “conceived space” can be seen as the “political” dimension that reflects “views and ideologies held by different policy makers whose policies mold the LL”; and the “lived space” can be seen the “experiential” dimension that presents the attitudes of “inhabitants”. I will triangulate data from each perspective for the investigation of campus linguistic landscapes. I will adopt Hymes’ “Speaking Model” (1972) and Scollon and Scollon’s (2003) work in Geosemiotics into analysis in order to enrich the descriptive analysis of campus linguistic landscape.

Wang, Jufferman and Du (2012, p. 203) cited from Blommaert et al. and pointed out “language policy should be seen in terms of processes of ‘policing’, i.e. process of rational production and management of a normative structure that involves various social and political actors and institutions with unequally distributed agency.” This notion indicates the difference in the policy-making and implementing process at different levels. Therefore, this study will explore language policies or regulations regarding signs at national, provincial and municipal levels in China and Japan, which can bring useful findings for examining the actual construction of campus linguistic landscape. Lefebvre refers landscape to the visual aspect of space that may change in different social context accordingly with the features of that society (Trumper-Hecht, 2010). The campus linguistic landscapes also demonstrate the “social fact” through language distributions on campus. It is obvious that the globalization background facilitates the formation of the multilingual and multiethnic community on campus with its features.

The perceptions and preferences of “walkers” (sign readers) have been explored as a “Third Dimension” (Trumper-Hecht, 2010) for linguistic landscape

research. Given the wide range of the actors establishing norms, the ideology of language policy becomes complicated which allows the appearance of various understandings for preserving normativity and order. In addition, as Spolsky (2004, p. 222) noted, "...The real language policy of a community is more likely to be found in its practices than in management." Exploring the actual construction of campus linguistic landscape will uncover the real attitudes of the government. Based on the questionnaire and interview survey, this study will shed some light on the sign readers' interpretations towards both policy-making and the actual representation of campus linguistic landscapes.

1.5 Research Significance

Focusing on a new site of linguistic landscape, this study is also the first attempt to explore the multilingual linguistic landscape in China, where the majority of sign studies concentrate on the Chinese-English bilingual signs and their translation. A close examination of the campus signs from the perspective of sociolinguistics explicates the functions of signs, participants and norms for sign making, and identifies the genres within each setting. The campus signs compose a part of the larger linguistic landscape of its city. Moreover, the examination of the regulations or laws with regard to language use has been a popular aspect for studying the linguistic landscape, but how the "inhabitants" (sign readers) of a given place understand and interpret the norms (regulations) is still a challenging task facing linguistic landscape researchers (Huebner, 2009). This study, including a questionnaire survey to investigate students' attitudes towards multilingual signs, with a follow-up interview, is an examination of sign readers' responses to the language policy, which also answers the call from

Gorter (2006) for more research that explores the psychological and visual perceptions of the linguistic landscape and addresses the gap in current linguistic landscape literature. The domestic and overseas students compose the multilingual communities in a given place and their attitudes are an important part for the researchers to understand both people's attitudes as a whole.

The investigation of campus linguistic landscape from both sociolinguistic and geosemiotic perspectives substantiates the descriptive analysis of campus signs by providing a theoretical backup. With a synchronic record of the construction of the campus linguistic landscape, this study provides a basis for further comparative and diachronic study in the future. Moreover, the interdisciplinary nature of linguistic landscape research could inspire Chinese scholars to address the gap in studying signs between China and other countries.

1.6 Overview of Chapters

In the introduction of this study, I have provided a brief history of linguistic landscape research and its recent development, and the current language situations of China and Japan. In Chapter Two, I will first clarify the definition for terms and the semiotic background of signs, based on which I will analyze previous studies on linguistic landscape. Then, I will review shop sign research in China and Japan and illustrate the gap of linguistic landscape research between China and other countries in order to get a general view of the urban linguistic landscape. Chapter Three will discuss some methodological problems concerning linguistic landscape research and propose the approaches adopted by this study with its research questions. Chapter Four will analyze campus signs under Hymes' "Speaking Model" (1972) by analyzing five major

components of the ethnography of communication and Chapter Five will investigate the language use on both campuses and students' attitudes towards the campus signs of both countries. Chapter Six will interpret the campus signs from the perspective of Geosemiotics (Scollon and Scollon, 2003). A brief conclusion will be done in Chapter Seven.

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to review previous studies on signs or linguistic landscapes worldwide. First, I will introduce signs from the perspective of semiotics and its role in the linguistic landscape. Then, I will explicate the definition of the term “linguistic landscape”. Finally, based on an overview of earlier linguistic landscape studies including a discussion of research on the linguistic cityscapes of both China and Japan, I will illustrate the difference in focus between linguistic landscape research in China and that of other countries, and provide a comparative view with campus linguistic landscapes at the same time.

2.2 Semiotic Background of Linguistic Landscape

The sign is a key term and essential element of semiotics. By referring to or symbolizing something other than itself, signs basically construct the linguistic landscape. It is sign in its various forms that characterizes the linguistic landscape. Saussure regarded linguistics as a branch of “semiology”, as he (Saussure, 1983, pp. 16-17) noted:

Linguistics is only one branch of this general science [of semiology]. The laws which semiology will discover will be laws applicable in linguistics... As far as we are concerned...the linguistic problem is first and foremost sociological... if one wishes to discover the true nature of language systems, one must first consider what they have in common with all other systems of the same kind... in this way, light will be thrown not only upon the linguistic problem. By considering rites, customs etc. as signs; it will be possible, we believe, to see them in a new perspective. The need will be felt to consider them as sociological phenomena and to explain them in terms of laws of semiology.

To understand the semiotic features of linguistic landscape, this section will first talk about some basic semiotic ideas concerning signs. The online Oxford Dictionary of English provides five meanings as follows to the understanding of “sign” as a noun:

1. an object, quality, or event whose presence or occurrence indicates the probable presence or occurrence of something else.
2. a gesture or action used to convey information or instruction.
3. a notice on public display that gives information or instruction in a written or symbolic form
4. (also zodiacal sign) Astrology each of the twelve equal sections into which the zodiac is divided...
5. *Mathematics* the positiveness or negativeness of a quantity

The first and third explanations indicate the existing forms of various signs, and echo the basic characteristics of signs; based on Saussure’s semiotic theory, it is known that the basic characteristic of the sign is a bilateral relationship between a “signifier” as its material form, and a “signified” as its conceptual content (Saussure, 1916, pp. 65-70). The physical form of signs tells that we are living in a world filled with signs, and we interpret signs around us to understand where we are, what is happening, what we can do, and so on: for example, a simple arrow can direct the reader to the right place he/she wants to visit; a slarcle can prohibit the reader from doing something not allowed; several letters that form a unique name may help a skyscraper become a landmark building, or even make it a representative of a country that help the country advertise itself to others worldwide. In the process of displaying itself, the symbolic meaning or the conception a sign carries is imbedded in the sign readers’ minds. By identifying various signs around, we may find that human beings’ lives are

closely related to signs. In other words, human activities also enrich the linguistic landscape.

To capture a broader view of semiotics, Sebeok (2001, pp. 8-11) identified six types of signs, three of which are adopted from Charles Sanders Peirce (1955): “Symptom”, “Signal”, “Icons”, “Indexes”, “Symbols”, and “Name”. The term “Symptom” is “a reflex of anatomical structure” (p. 9); innate capabilities of animals and human beings are the embodiment of “Signal”; “Icon” is “a sign that is made to resemble, simulate, or reproduce its referent in some way” (p. 10); “Index” is “a sign that refers to something or someone in terms of its existence or location in time or space, or in relation to something or someone else” (p. 10); “Symbol” is “a sign that stands for its referent in an arbitrary, conventional way” (p. 11); “Name” is “an identifier sign assigned to the member of a species in various ways” (p. 11). Those different types of signs indicate that we are living in a semiotic world and the linguistic landscape essentially is made up of the flexible combination of various signs, and its creative design of signs distinguish one linguistic landscape from another. In the campus linguistic landscape, it is easy for one to recognize the existence of university as long as he or she finds the “Name” (name engraved on the stone) on campus; the large number of students and classroom buildings are “Symptom” and “Index” of the existence of campus.

Peirce (1955) contributed greatly to the understanding of the indexical feature of signs (the formation of the meaning of a sign is related to its context), and Scollon and Scollon (2003) emphasized this notion and mentioned that a sign only makes sense because of the context and situation where it is placed, and indicate that “Indexicality is the property of the

context-dependency of signs, especially language” (p. 3). Moreover, Backhaus (2007, p. 4) indicated “Language on signs is a specific type of language use distinct from most other forms of written and spoken communication in everyday life” and “Language is a symbolic sign system in which conventional speech signs (morphemes, words, sentences, etc.) represent meanings” (p. 8).

Therefore, signs in a semiotic sense combining signs in a linguistic sense are intrinsically connected, and are necessary constitutive elements of a linguistic landscape, although they may not always appear at the same time. The six types of signs are concrete descriptions which identify the existing forms of signs that enrich and decorate the linguistic landscape. The distribution of signs around us indicates that the source of linguistic landscape is from the activities of human beings whose life is closely connected with the display of signs. Moreover, the placement endows signs with indexicality that helps us understand the objects surround us. As signs are often exposed to the public for a long time, they carry and spread the meaning they symbolize easier than other forms of writing. In fact, there is a strong need for signs in daily life. For example, on university campus, one may expect to see a nameplate or inscription that clearly writes the name of that university, thus the nameplate works as an informing sign to tell others what the place is. Moreover, when one walks around a Japanese campus and finds signs written in Chinese or Korean, he/she may realize the existence of overseas students from China or Korea. Also the wide use of English creates “internationalized” feeling on campus. Therefore, the semiotic and linguistic signs interact together for the interpretation of linguistic landscape. On both campuses, we can also observe a visual data aided linguistic landscape. The

visual presented elements are indispensable to the composition of campus linguistic landscape.

2.3 Definition of the Term: Linguistic Landscape

To define linguistic landscape research, it is necessary to trace the earliest studies on physical signs first. There is a long history of research on signs, for example, Masai (1972) who noted the presence of English in the Tokyo city; Rosenbaum et al. (1977) who documented the spread of English on Keren Kayemet Street; Tulp (1978) who studied bilingualism in Brussels and recognized the predominance of French. It can be concluded that the research on signs was first explored by scholars who recognized the increasing use of another language, especially English, and they did research to document the phenomenon of the spread of a different languages in their communities. However, no one proposed a term for this kind of research until Landry and Bourhis used the term “linguistic landscape” first in their seminal paper, from which the definition of linguistic landscape is widely quoted. According to Landry and Bourhis (1997, p. 23) linguistic landscape refers to “the visibility and salience of languages on public and commercial signs in a given territory or region.” They (p. 25) further defined linguistic 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.”

In recent years, “linguistic landscape” has become a popular term for sign research, although the term “sign” is overwhelmingly used throughout the whole research. It is also noteworthy that in Landry and Bourhis’ original article “public

sign” was used as a substitute of linguistic landscape in a large part of their analysis, and in the abstract they again adopted “public sign” in comparison with “private sign” that comprise the whole linguistic landscape, which caused misunderstanding of “public sign”. In addition to this, they further classify signs into two subcategories in their article: “private sign” and “government sign”, which once more raises the question of how to understand the term “linguistic landscape”. Ben-Rafael et al. (2010) put forward the classification of “public sign” and “private sign”: “signs issued by public authorities (like government, municipalities or public agencies), and those issued by individuals, associations or firms acting more or less autonomously in the limits of authorized regulations” (p. xi). Some studies categorize them as “top-down” and “bottom-up” signs (Backhaus, 2007; Ben-Rafael et al., 2004 & 2006; Blackwood, 2010). Finally, the investigation on the conception of the term “linguistic landscape” turns to the discussion on what are included in the linguistic landscape and how they are assorted. Therefore, the definition of the term “Linguistic Landscape” finally becomes how the researchers define the constitutions of linguistic landscape research based on data collection in their research.

Moreover, the research site and focus also exert influence on the conception of a term. Gorter (2006) summarized that the linguistic landscape research traditionally focused on the visibility of language in the cities and propose another word “cityscape” to better delineate those studies. Thus “linguistic cityscape” becomes a term in the real understanding of linguistic landscape research (Backhaus, 2007; Spolsky, 2010). Landry and Bourhis’ definition explicitly indicated that the focus of linguistic landscape research was the “language” appearing in a given place. Recently, some researchers have

criticized the limitations of the commonly quoted definition from Landry and Bourhis and expanded the notion of linguistic landscape by including a variety of literacy items such as icons, images, and logos, in addition to languages displayed or inscribed in public spaces, for instance, Itagi & Singh (2002), Backhaus (2007) and Shohamy & Gorter (2009), thereby the understanding of the term had been further revised.

More expansions of the notion of linguistic landscape have been found scattered in other works, for instance, Gorter (2006, p. 1) indicated, "Sometimes the meaning of linguistic landscape is extended to include a description of the history of languages or different degrees in the knowledge of languages." He further related the notion of linguistic landscape to "linguistic market", "linguistic mosaic", "ecology of languages", "diversity of languages and linguistic situation"; Spolsky (2010) indicated linguistic landscape's development into sociolinguistics and language policy; Gorter & Cenoz (2010) emphasized linguistic landscape's importance in economic processes; Shohamy & Gorter (2010) pointed out the necessity of widening the scope of linguistic landscape by investigating places like campuses, offices of government, big corporations, moving buses, beaches, cyberspace and so on in order to enrich the linguistic landscape research.

Therefore, to provide a clear definition for linguistic landscape, researchers need to give explicit statement on their research scope. The current study expands Landry and Bourhis' understanding of linguistic landscape through incorporating both languages and visual data, i.e. the interaction of written text and images found on the campus signboards. Moreover, I do not generally take campus signs as official signs or government signs in my study.

Instead, I will give detailed descriptions on the complex components included in the university campus linguistic landscape in Chapter 3 and in the discussion on the genres of linguistic landscape in Section 3 and 4 of Chapter 4.

2.4 Overview of Some Previous Linguistic Landscape Studies

For tracing the origin and development of linguistic landscape research, we need to look back on early empirical works focusing on the increasing presence of English and other languages in the public sphere. Some scholars have provided diachronical summary of linguistic landscape studies (Backhaus, 2007, Garvin, 2011, Troyer, 2012), based on which I will present a selection that gives a straightforward demonstration of research topics and a variety of places where signs had been surveyed. Making use of the list, I will further analyze the features and tendencies of linguistic landscape research.

Table 2- 1: Some Previous Linguistic Landscape Studies from 1972-2009			
Year	Author	Title/Topic	Research Sites
1972	Masai	Living Map of Tokyo	Tokyo
1977	Rosenbaum	English on Keren Kayemet Street	Jerusalem
1978	Tulp	Language on commercial billboard	Brussels
1987	Bhatia, T. K.	English in advertising: Multiple mixing and media	South Asian
1989	Monnier	Linguistic conflict; language in the commercial sector	Montreal
	Zeng Shiyong	Discussion on How to Use pinyin for Place Names in the map of China	China
1990	Calvet	Languages used in the linguistic landscape	Paris; Dakar
	Takahashi & Wilkerson, K.	English elements in Japanese advertising	Japan
1994	Calvet	Languages used in the linguistic landscape	Paris; Dakar
	Cheshire, J. & Moser, L. M.	English as a cultural symbol: The case of advertisements in French speaking Switzerland	Switzerland
1991	Spolsky & Copper	Sign of power and solidarity	Jerusalem
1994	Smalley. W. A.	Linguistic Diversity and National Unity: Language Ecology in Thailand	Thailand
1996	Wenzel, V.	Language on commercial signs	Brussels
1997	Landry, R. & Bourhis, R.	Linguistic Landscape and Ethno-linguistic Vitality	Montreal
	Ross, N.	Signs of international English	Milan
2000	CLF	Summary of linguistic landscape studies	Montreal
	Inoue, F.	The Price of Japanese	Tokyo
	McArthur, T.	Interanto: The Global Language of Signs	Sweden
	Hick, D.	Scotland's Linguistic Landscape: The lack of policy and planning with Scotland's place names and signage	Sweden
2002	Someya, H.	Writing on signs	Tokyo
	Itagi, N.H. & Singh, S. K.	Linguistic landscaping in India with particular reference to the new states	India
	Schlick, M	The English of shop signs in Europe	Klagenfurt; Udine
2003	Kim, M.	Japan's growing ethnic heterogeneity seen from the linguistic landscape	Japan
	MacGregor, L.	The Language of Shop Signs in Tokyo	Tokyo
	Scollon & Scollon	Discourse in Place	Hong Kong, Vienna, etc.

2004	Berry, K.	English in the Linguistic Landscape of Mongolia: Indices of Language Spread and Language Competition	Mongolia
	Ben-Rafael, E. Shohamy, E., et al	Linguistic landscape and multiculturalism: A Jewish-Arab comparative study	Israel
	Griffin, J.L	The presence of written English on the streets of Rome	Rome
	Reh, M.	Multilingual writing: A reader-oriented typology with examples from Lira Municipality	Uganda
	Stewart & Fawcett	Shop signs in small towns in modern Portugal	Portugal
2005	Backhaus, P.	Signs of Multilingualism in Tokyo: A linguistic landscape approach	Tokyo
	Dailey, R. M. Giles, H. & Jansma, L. L.	Language attitudes in an Anglo-Hispanic context: The role of linguistic landscape	Santa Ynez USA
	Rubestein-Avila, E.	Brazilian Portuguese in Massachusetts's LL: A prevalent yet understudies phenomenon	Boston, MA
	Backhaus, P.	Multilingualism in Tokyo: A diachronic look into the linguistic landscape	Tokyo
2006	Ben-Rafael, E. Shohamy, E. et al.	Linguistic landscape as symbolic construction of public space: The case of Israel	East Jerusalem
	Cenoz, J. & Gorter, D.	Linguistic Landscape and minority languages	Netherland; Spain
	Huebner, T.	Bangkok's linguistic landscapes: Environmental print, codemixing and language change	Bangkok
2007	Backhaus, P.	Linguistic Landscapes: A Comparative Study of Urban Multilingualism in Tokyo	Tokyo
	Edelman, L.	What is in a name? Classification of proper names by language	Amsterdam
	Collins, J. & Slembrouck, S.	Reading shop windows in globalized neighborhoods: Multilingual literacy practices and indexicality	Belgium
	Huang, C.	Language planning for naming and its socio-cultural connotations: A case study in Taiwan	Taiwan
2008	Cenoz, J. & Gorter, D.	The linguistic landscape as an additional source of input in second language acquisition	Basque
	Hornsby, M.	The incongruence of the Breton linguistic landscape for young speakers of Breton	Brittany

2009	Backhaus, P.	Rules and regulations in linguistic landscaping	Quebec; Tokyo
	Coulmas, F	Linguistic landscape and the seed of the public sphere	World-famous Inscriptions
	Curtain, M.	Indexical signs, identities and the linguistic landscape of Taipei	Taiwan
	Dagenais, D., Moore, D., et al.	Linguistic landscape and language awareness	Montreal, Vancouver, Canada
	Dal Negro, S.	Local policy modeling the linguistic landscape	South Tyrol, Italy
	Hanauer, D.	Science and the LL: A genre analysis of representational wall space in a microbiology laboratory	Pittsburgh, PA
	Hult, F.	Languages ecology and linguistic landscape analysis	Sweden
	Lanza, E. & Woldemarian, H.	Language ideology and linguistic landscape	Ethiopia
	Malinowski, D.	Authorship in the linguistic landscape: A multimodal-performative view	Oakland, CA
	Pavlenko, A.	Language conflict in post-Soviet linguistic landscapes	post-Soviet countries
	Pennycook, A.	Linguistic Landscapes and Transgressive semiotics of Graffiti	Malaysia
	Rosendal, Tove	Linguistic markets in Rwanda: Language use in advertisements and on signs	Rwanda
	Shohamy, E. & Waksman, S.	LL as ecological arena: Modalities, meanings, negotiations, education	Tel-Aviv
	Slobada, M.	State ideology and linguistic landscape: A comparative analysis of (post) communist Belarus, Czech Republic, and Slovakia	Belarus; Czech Republic; Slovakia
	Stroud, C. & Mpendukana, S.	Towards a material ethnography of linguistic landscape: Multilingualism, mobility and space in a South African township.	South Africa
	Trumper-Hecht, N.	Construction of national identity in mixed cities of Israel: Arabic signs in the public space of Upper Nazareth	Nazareth, Israel

From the exhibition of previous works, it is found that the research of signs has been conducted world wide with or without labeling the term “linguistic landscape”, and I will discuss the characteristics of those studies. First, linguistic landscape research is predominately conducted in urban areas around

the world. As Coulmas (2009, p. 14) indicated, “linguistic landscape studies typically focus on urban environments.” Gorter (2006) also collected a series of publications on studies of the linguistic landscape in “urban settings”. Backhaus (2007) further pointed out that language usage in urban public places had been the theme of linguistic landscape research and put forward a preferable term “cityscape”. Linguistic landscape researchers expect a fruitful result from examining the cityscapes, and it has been verified that there is more linguistic diversity in urban space where there is booming of private signs (Backhaus, 2006; Huebner, 2006; Landry and Bourhis, 1997; Rosenbaum et al., 1977).

Second, as Backhaus indicated (2005) the research interest of linguistic landscape first appeared in places where there had been linguistic conflicts among different language groups, for instance, Quebec, Montreal and Belgium and those empirical studies are taken as important literature for scholars nowadays. Therefore, there also arise the issues and discussion on language policy and language planning, for example, Cenoz and Gorter (2006) found that the difference in language policy influence the presence of the minority languages in the linguistic landscape; Backhaus (2009) exhibited the contrast in the representation of the context in language policies in Canada and Japan; Plessis (2010) suggested to see the extension of the notion of language policy in terms of covert form, which indicates the effect it brings; Negro (2009) illustrated the influence of the local language policy to the dialect varieties of German.

Third, given the language situations in the multilingual communities, surveys on the power relation of the dominant group and subdominant group and state ideology were often proposed, as the theme of linguistic landscape

research (Ben-Rafael et al., 2006; Marten, 2009; Plessis, 2010, Sloboda, 2009,). For instance, Curtin (2009) extended the notion of language in a public space to the understanding of collective national identity and claimed the of linguistic landscape of Taipei work as indexical signs that inform the identity of its agents; Shohamy et al. (2010) also collected several contributions on the topic of power communicated in the linguistic landscape; the linguistic landscape as a site of power struggling informs its audience of the power relations through the language choice for the public signage, which may cause conflict of the dominant language and weaker language group, and thus draw researchers attention.

Fourth, English and its spread first attracted the interest of scholars, as many previous studies took the increasing presence of English in the linguistic landscape as basis to further delineate social, cultural, and economic changes of that place. One important cause is globalization, because of which, the variation of English, the booming of foreign languages, and the salience of one language in the public place become rich fields of linguistic landscape research. Huebner (2006) presented the “emerging Thai variety of English” besides the questions of language mixing and language dominance. Moreover, the commercial usage of English in advertisement, product branding, shops, and so on, has become a popular subject explored by many scholars (Bhatia, 2006; Bolton, 2012; Friedrich, 2002; Ross, 1997; Schlick, 2002; Tulp, 1978), so English in particular has drawn much attention in the linguistic landscape.

Fifth, a deeper investigation into linguistic landscape requires the researcher to explore the history of a country, from which the history and formation of current language situation could be explained. In the process, issues like immigration, colonial history, controversy on a state language, and so on are

often discussed. Moreover, Gorter (2006) viewed linguistic landscape as a new approach to multilingualism; Shohamy et al.'s (2010) collection shed new insight on linguistic landscape through the exploration of multiculturalism and the perceptions of the audience. It has become a tendency to enlarge the possibility of linguistic landscape, which is also a challenge for the researchers.

There has been a lack of theoretical support to verify and enrich the descriptive analysis of the visual data in the linguistic landscape research. Many previous studies analyzed the linguistic landscape without introducing theoretical background and systematic analysis (Backhaus, 2007; Huebner, 2006; McArthur, 2000; Rosenbaum, 1977; Schlick, 2003). Because of the absence of an exact term for sign research, researchers have become aware of the theoretical and methodological problems in doing linguistic landscape research. Some scholars try to borrow theories from different discipline, and call for the cooperation of researchers from different research background. Shohamy & Gorter's (2009) pioneering collection "expanding the scenery" of linguistic landscape provides comprehensive insights for adopting theories from other disciplines, such as historical perspectives (Coulmas, 2009), sociological (Ben-Rafael, 2009), economic (Cenoz & Gorter, 2009), and ecological perspectives (Hult, 2009), which are substantial expansion of the framework for linguistic landscape. However, the linguistic landscape researchers are still on their way to explore theories that could substantiate the analysis of the linguistic landscapes. As this section indicates, the popular focus of linguistic landscape has been the urban areas. I will give a special review of previous works on the linguistic cityscapes of China and Japan that analyze shop signs of their capital cities.

2.5 Brief Review of Shop Signs in the Linguistic Landscape of China and Japan

As it has been concluded, big cities first draw researchers' interests. Coulmas (2009, p. 14) also stated, "linguistic landscape is really linguistic cityscape, especially in multilingual settings." Based on the great deal of efforts on investigating signs in urban areas (Dimova, 2007; MacGregor, 2003; Masai, 1972; McArthur, 2000; Schlick, 2002, 2003; Tulp, 1978;), this section reviews the research of shop signs in China and Japan in order to provide a comparative view on campus signs examined in subsequent chapters.

The multilingualism of China's linguistic landscape has not drawn so much attention as in Japan, thus few studies that analyze the language choice, usage and change in the public sphere can be found. I conducted an empirical study (Wang, 2013) to provide a general view on the language usage of the linguistic landscape of big city in China. It investigated the languages used in the names of shop signs of Wangfujing Street of Beijing. This street, starting from the east of Chang'an Avenue in the south and extending to National Art Museum of China in the north, is one of China's most famous shopping streets. Another accessible work is from Liu, Owhashi & Kishie (2012) who investigated signs collected from four shopping malls in Huangdao district of Qingdao City of China. Comparatively speaking, the linguistic landscape of Japan has been explored and documented sufficiently in ample articles and books (Backhaus, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2009; MacGreor, 2003). Tokyo, in particular, is often selected as the site for examining language usage.

Commercial shop signs are part of a city's whole linguistic landscape, alongside billboards, street names, road signs, place names and public signs (Landry & Bourhis, 1997). It was assumed that foreign languages, especially

English, will constitute a large proportion of the shop signs. As Gorter & Cenoz (2008, p. 268) stated, “The highest density of signs is found in the main shopping streets and industrial areas where the average number of signs per stretching meter can be rather high.” Moreover, there is more linguistic diversity on private signs than on “public” or “government” signs (Huebner, 2006; Landry & Bourhis, 1997; Leclerc, 1989).

Table 2- 2: Languages Used in the Shop Signs of Wangfujing Street					
Unilingual	44 (49%)			Bilingual	40
Chinese	24 (27%)	German	1 (1%)	Chinese+ English	45%
English	6 (6.7%)	Spanish	1 (1%)		
Japanese	5 (5.6%)	Arabic	1 (1%)	Images	5
French	4 (4.5%)	Others	2 (2%)		(5.6%)

(Wang, 2013)



Figure 2- 1: Wangfujing Street

In the case study on the shop signs of Wangfujing Street (see Figure 2-1), signs collected are the nameplates of the shops along each side of Wangfujing Street. Usually, individual stores (also called “boutiques”) put the nameplate on

the top their buildings, but for some big department buildings, in which each store is struggling to get a place for their names, the nameplates are hung on the wall of the department store in order to inform the passers-by or advertise themselves. It is found in total 7 languages were used in the shop signs: Chinese, English, Japanese, French, Spanish, German, and Arabic. Of the businesses, 27% had Chinese-only names, 45% were Chinese-English bilingual signs, 22% were in other foreign languages, for example, Japanese, Spanish, and so on, and 5.6% were images. Table 2-2 concludes these findings. Among the Chinese-only signs, the shops were almost exclusively local business, and the types of shops were not clearly divided, so visitors can find a diversity of shops using Chinese for their the storefront signs. Besides, it is found that the service-providing businesses, for example, banks, hotels, restaurants, and travel agencies, prefer to use Chinese-English bilingual signs. The presence of English-only signs in the boutique shops (100%) is congruent with earlier research that even if English elements are incomprehensible for some, they can be attractive because of the prestige and wealth associated with them (Crystal, 1997). This is true of other foreign languages used in the shop signs of the luxury businesses in Wangfujing Street. Of the 7 signs using French, German, and Spanish, 5 are for world famous watch companies, which show that Wangfujing Street is a globalized place, leading the trend and are accompanied by a certain enthusiasm for both Western ideas and luxury.

Similarly, Liu et al.'s study (2012) concentrates on Qingdao, China, a newly developing area that enjoys policy advantages from the Chinese government. Signs from four supermarkets are collected and classified by their locations, for example, the entrance and exit, the tenant shop, the inside of the supermarket,

parking lots and so on. The analysis of the multilingualism in signs is summarized according to the different functional areas. It found Chinese, English, Japanese, and Korean were adopted in those signs, with pictographs oftentimes. This study also indicated the wide use of English caused by the process of globalization, although the exact number of English signs of the four sites was not counted. Chinese-English bilingual signs constitute the largest proportion in tenant shops. Also the foreign language ability of the shop assistants is also examined.

In the case of Japan, because of its complex writing system, linguistic landscape research examines not only the language used, but also the different scripts displayed. MacGregor (2003) selected three streets in Seijo near the Gakuen-mae train station in the west of central Tokyo for data collection. The research findings on languages are shown in Table 2-3.

Table 2- 3: Languages used in Seijo Shop Signs (n=120)					
Unilingual		Bilingual		Trilingual	
Japanese	52 (43.3%)	English+Japanese	29 (24.2%)	Eng+Fre+Japanese	2 (1.7%)
English	31 (25.8%)	French+Japanese	2 (1.7%)		
French	3 (2.5%)	Danish+Japanese	1 (0.8%)		

(MacGregor, 2003)

MacGregor found that the dominant language in shop signs was Japanese, and among them most were in Kanji only, especially for Japanese restaurants, cram schools, and food shops. English-only signs, which help elevate the status of shops, and Japanese-English bilingual signs, in which Japanese is translated improves the comprehensibility of them, are also widely found, especially in the retail stores. Foreign languages are used as “extension of Japanese”, since many

of them are Japanized in Katakana. The signs in Kanji only, Hiragana only, Katakana only, and Kanji+Roman Script are also grouped separately. It is indicated some “English-looking” signs do not carry any meaning, but are a creative way to attract the customers or decorate the area, which is also applicable to French signs there, thus “made in Japan” words are widely found.

The shop signs in both countries are fertile sites to explore linguistic diversity in large metropolitans like Beijing and Tokyo, as they represent and bring vogue and fashion first and fast. As Backhaus (2007, p. 1) stressed “The city is a place of language contact” and “The spatial coexistence of different languages and linguistic varieties has made the city a favorable environment for variationist studies, and more recently, multilingualism research.” This also explains the flourishing of study on English in the context of advertising (Bhatia, 1987; Cheshire & Moser, 1994; Martin, 1998; Takahashi, 1990), although they have not been specifically examined in linguistic landscape. The congruency in research sites provides a comparative view of the linguistic landscapes in the cities across the world, which could help interpret other areas of linguistic landscape.

2.6 Gap in the Linguistic Landscape Research: International and Chinese Perspectives

Florian Coulmas (2009, p. 11) claims, “Linguistic landscape is as old as writing.” However, there is still insufficient documentation of the linguistic landscape in the past. The history of sign research can be traced to 1980s in China (Zeng, 1989) and 1970s in Japan (Masai, 1972). This section will take a comparative look at the views and study interests of researchers, and illustrate

gaps and differences in analyzing and studying signs between China and other nations worldwide.

2.6.1 Regarding the Term: Linguistic Landscape or Public Sign?

Much research has been done to investigate signs in the public sphere, but speaking of a common term for sign related research, there is a difference. In China, “public sign”, (*gongshiyu* in Chinese, which is a literal translation from “public sign”, but it is also an indigenous Chinese word), is popularly adopted, while in other countries including Japan, researchers often use the term “linguistic landscape” (*gengokeikan* in Japanese). It is found that “public sign” has been used as an English key word in many Chinese journal articles (Huang & Du, 2009; Niu, 2007; Yang, 2005). However, “linguistic landscape”, taking the place of “public sign”, has been used as the key word or term for studying signs elsewhere worldwide (Backhaus, 2006; Cenoz & Gorter, 2006; Huebner, 2006; Landry & Bourhis, 1997;), although in some journal articles “sign” solely is used in their titles (MacGregor, 2003; McArthur, 2000; Schlick, 2003).

Considering the inconsistency in using a term or key word for sign related studies in current research worldwide, it is necessary to explore their understandings of “sign” in previous studies, which also reflects the different research interests. A sign, according to the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English 1987*, is “a notice giving information, warning, directions, etc.” A newer edition of the same dictionary in 1995 writes, “a sign is a piece of paper, metal etc. in a public space, with words or drawing on it that give people information, warn them not to do something etc. ”

The definition of “public sign” (*gongshiyu*, in Chinese) cannot be found directly in *HanYuCiDian*, (*Chinese Phrase Dictionary*) (Lin, 2007), but several Chinese concepts, including “*gongshi*” (“publicly displayed notice from government and organizations”), “*biaoyu*” (“propaganda or slogan with concise words and vivid expression”) and “*biaoshi*” (“signs with directions”), comprise the word’s general meaning. Lü Hefa, a professor of Beijing International Studies University defined in his article (Lü, 2005) that a public sign was publicly displayed information in written or symbolic form, which is closely related to the public lives, works, and environment with informing, prompting, restricting or compelling functions. Other scholars often quote his definition for studying signs in China (Lu, 2007; Pi, 2010). It is noteworthy that majority of those studies on signs exclude commercial signs from their research, such as advertisements, posters, and shop signs, which are important constituents of a linguistic landscape.

Linguistic landscape, according to Landry and Bourhis (1997, p. 23), refers to “the visibility and salience of languages on public and commercial signs in a given territory or region.” In their seminal paper, Landry and Bourhis distinguish private signs and government signs in the linguistic landscape as follows:

Private signs include commercial signs on storefronts and business institutions (e.g., retail stores and banks), commercial advertising on billboards, and advertising signs displayed in public transport and on private vehicles. Government signs refer to public signs used by national, regional, or municipal governments in the following domains: road signs, place names, street names, and inscriptions on government buildings including ministries, hospitals, universities, town halls, schools, metro stations, and public parks. (p. 26)

In their classification, Landry and Bourhis did not use “public sign” to distinguish from private signs, instead the term “government sign” is adopted.

For the linguistic landscape research, some of them focus only on shops or commercial advertisements or bulletins, but many studies include both private and government signs that comprise the whole linguistic landscape. Therefore, in most cases, the Chinese scholars narrowed down their research interests of signs and the conception of linguistic landscape by focusing merely on “government signs”.

2.6.2 Regarding the Perspectives of Linguistic Landscape Research

2.6.2.1 “Public Signs” in China

In China, the history of public sign research can be traced to the 1980's. An article titled “Discussion on How to Use Pinyin for Place Names in the Map of China” appeared in *Chinese Translators Journal* in 1989, the leading journal specializing in translation in China. This article introduced how to apply generic term of a geographical name, which strengthened the importance and seriousness of place name translation (Zeng, 1989). In the late 1990s, Duan Liancheng (1998), a leading scholar, translator and the former leader of the Foreign Languages Publishing and Distribution Administration, published *How to Help Foreigners Know China*. This book is regarded as the first academic monograph of international communication and established a foundation for the theoretical formation of international communication in China.

As public signs are attracting more and more translators and scholars' interest, Beijing International Studies University founded the first on-line C-E sign translation website in 2003. “The 1st Symposium on C&E Signs in a Global Context”, which was co-organized by the Translator's Association of China, China Daily Website, the China Standardization Institute, and Beijing International

Studies University, was held in Beijing International Studies University on Sep. 26-27, 2005. It attracted more than 100 experts and scholars on translation. Some scholars started working on dictionaries and book regarding signs, such as Lü Hefa and Shan Liping (2004), and Wang Ying and Lü Hefa (2007).

Leading Journals like *Chinese Translators Journal* and *Shanghai Journal of Translators* provide a platform for public sign research, in which many articles are published, for example, “C-E Translation of Signs in China” (Beijing Sign Translation Research Center, 2007); “On C-E Translation of Public Signs: A Case Study of London, the City Holding 2012 Olympic Games” (Dai & Lü, 2005); “An Eco-Translatology Perspective to the Translation of Public Signs: A Case Study of the Slogan of Shanghai EXPO” (Shu, 2010), to mention a few. From May 2006, the Public Sign Research Center of Beijing International Studies University has been conducting an empirical study to investigate to what extent foreigners are satisfied with the English public signs displayed in China and their need for English public signs. In the report, the differences between China and western countries in using signs are indicated. In this study, the functional and pragmatic problems in public sign translation and usage are discussed, and solutions are also given.

2.6.2.2 Linguistic Landscape: An International Overview

It was in regions where there were linguistic conflicts that we can find the origin of the topic of linguist landscape (Backhaus, 2005). Moreover, the interest towards linguistic landscape research has been on the rise since 1990s, such as, Spolsky and Cooper (1991), who analyzed languages usage of Jerusalem, Calvet (1990, 1994), who took a comparative look at the linguistic landscapes of Paris

and Dakar; McArthur's (2000) documentary on the language usage of street and store signs in Zurich and Uppsala (Europe); Itagi and Singh (2002), focusing on various issues of linguistic landscaping in India; Schlick's studies (2002, 2003) on the English shop signs in Europe; Ben-Rafael et al.'s (2004) large-scale study of language on signs in Israeli multilingual communities; Reh's (2004) reader-oriented survey of multilingual signs in Lira Municipality, Uganda; and Backhaus' (2005) study on multilingual signs in Tokyo from a diachronic point of view.

Gorter (2006), in his book, *Linguistic Landscape: A New Approach to Multilingualism*, introduces four papers that deal with issues like visibility of major language, language mixing and language dominance, multilingual signs, and minority languages in linguistic landscape in five different societies: Israel, Thailand, Japan, the Netherlands (Friesland) and Spain (the Basque Country). All of them focus on the linguistic landscape of cities.

Backhaus (2007) conducted a sociolinguistic survey on the linguistic landscape of metropolitan Tokyo, investigating linguistic landscaping by whom, for whom and quo vadis. He indicated that the bottom-up signs dominated Tokyo's linguistic landscape, there was a tendency to display multilingual signs to serve both Japanese and foreign readers, and Tokyo was showing a diversified linguistic landscape. Shohamy and Gorter (2009) provided a platform of theories that expanded the limitations and borders of linguistic landscape research. Shohamy et al. (2010) collected publications that contribute to the systematic multi-faceted investigation on linguistic landscape. Therefore, previous studies of linguistic landscape exhibit an interdisciplinary feature, and scholars have been working for the exploration on different research approaches.

2.6.2.3 Discussion: the Perspectives of Linguistic Landscape Research

In China, almost all the sign-related research has been done from the perspective of translation. In July 2011, this researcher did an investigation reviewing the publications of articles with respect to English public signs in journals all over China (Wang, 2012). This survey was based on the statistics provided by the China Academic Journal Network Publishing Database (CAJD). In CAJD, from the year 2002 to 2011(July), all together 575 articles about public sign were collected (see Figure 2-2). It was found that in the first few years only a few papers were published: 1 in 2002, 2003, and 2004 respectively, and 5 in 2005. However, the number went up quickly, from 33 in 2006, 80 in 2007, 89 in 2008, and 149 in 2009, all the way to 154 in 2010. 62 articles were recorded for the first half of 2011. Among the 575 articles, 217 studies (38%), are conducted focusing on signs in a certain place, for example, Beijing, Nanjing, a tourist site, a museum, college campus, and so on. Among these, 16 articles, or 2%, give a general review about the current research situation.

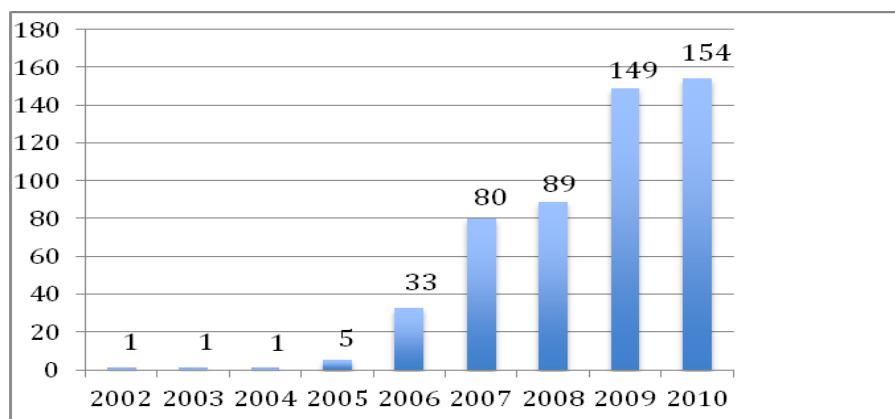


Figure 2- 2: Number of Articles Related to Public Signs in CADJ 2002-2010
(Wang, 2012)

Early on most publications aimed at pointing out the mistakes in public signs, and then analyzing how the “bad translation” results from the choice of

words (Ren, 2008; Wang & Yao, 2006). Following that, some articles shifted to examine the functions and language features of public signs and analyze how to translate public signs through considering the cultural differences between the East and West. Some researchers focus on the translation principle, like Pi (2010), who holds the view that the translation strategy is decided by the text type and translators should adhere to this as the main principle.

Although studies in China are mainly concerned with the correctness or accuracy of translation, those outside China include a broad spectrum of interests and fields of research, as pointed out by Shohamy et al. (2010, p. xi), “this new area of study has developed in recent years as a field of interest and cooperation among applied linguists, sociolinguists, sociologists, psychologists, cultural geographers and several other disciplines.” In their collection of publications, multilingualism of the linguistic landscape in present-day urban spaces is assessed; the top-down flow of linguistic landscape items that translate the power of authorities are examined; considerations on the issue of the economic and/or social benefits of linguistic landscape are raised; perceptions of passers-by in a certain area are surveyed; and how multiculturalism may impact on linguistic landscapes is discussed.

Therefore, it is obvious that public signs are studied from a wider scope by other nations than by China. Chinese scholars pay more attention to “public” or “government” sign translation, while in other nations signs are examined from a more general view or a variety of perspectives to deal with many issues like language policy, minority groups and their languages, and multilingualism. To conclude this section, the mixed or exchangeable use of “linguistic landscape” and “sign” worldwide makes the definition and scope of linguistic landscape

itself and the categorization of signs unclear. Globalization has affected the linguistic landscape of the cities, which is reflected in the increasing use of the English language (Gorter, 2006). This phenomenon is revealed in the booming of all kinds of social and academic activities for Chinese-English translation of public signs in China as well. Worldwide, multidisciplinary research provides an insight to expand the view of studying signs. Some studies go beyond seeing public signs as an information sender by taking them as a symbolic marker communicating the relative power and status of the linguistic communities in a given territory. Hence the “gap” between China and other nations comes to exist. However, the view from translation is a way to examine the construction of signs closer: such discussion of words on certain signs and the concern of cross-cultural communication can also be developed in future studies elsewhere.

2.7 Summary

This chapter starts with an illumination of the semiotic background of signs, and explores types of signs, which offers the possibility of extending the genres of linguistic landscape. I introduce the definition of the term “linguistic landscape” and emphasize the necessity of defining the scope of one’s research interest in Section 3. Section 5 gives an overview on previous studies and summarizes five features or tendencies of linguistic landscape research. A brief review on the studies of shop signs in Beijing and Tokyo is conducted in order to get a general understanding of the language usage in the cityscape of these two countries. Considering the different perspective taken by Chinese scholars, the gap in linguistic landscape research between China and other countries is discussed in terms of term adoption and differences in research perspectives.

CHAPTER 3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to demonstrate the design of this study. To begin with, some issues, such as sampling sites, counting signs, classification of signs, and insufficiency in theoretical analysis in linguistic landscape studies, are discussed. Following sections explain how this study is triangulated for data collection from the examination of language policy, description on the actual construction of campus linguistic landscape, and the students' responses to multilingual campus. This study provides a close examination of the campus linguistic landscape in terms of sociolinguistics and interpretation in terms of Geosemiotics. I propose the research questions and clarify the research sites in Section 3.3, following which the methodologies adopted in this study are explicated in detail.

3.2 Methodological Problems in Previous Studies

There has been a criticism for the lack of a sound methodology for linguistic landscape research. First is the problem of sampling. Sample collection contains three main considerations: (1) how does the study determine the survey area(s), (2) what items (artifacts) will be included and (3) what are their linguistic properties (Backhaus, 2007). Gorter (2006) indicated that it was a wise choice to limit the research site and make further selection within one area; for example, Huebner (2006) selected 15 neighborhoods in central and suburban Bangkok; Someya (2002) took samples of shop signs at 15 locations, mainly in areas around the stations of the Odakyu Line in the south-west of Tokyo; MacGregor (2003) focused on three small streets near Seijo Gakuen-mae train station in the west of central Tokyo. Representativity is not necessarily an important concern

of researcher, because of the research interests (Gorter, 2006, p. 3), so it brings us to the next concern of the “unit of analysis.”

Having a variety of signs in front of researchers, from where to start making analysis and what should be analyzed are crucial decisions for the research findings. In Backhaus’ work (2006, p. 55), “any piece of written text within a spatially definable frame” was regarded as a sign, and was included into the “unit of analysis;” shop signs and advertisements are also common survey items in the previous studies (Masai, 1972, Romenbaum et al., 1977; Someya, 2002; Tulp; 1978), as they bear distinguishable properties, which make the process of analysis easier and convenient. Although this kind of “biased” selection is often used, it is obvious that other types of signs are ignored deliberately, which constitute the multi-faceted linguistic landscape. Cenoz and Gorter (2006) took all the texts found in a given establishment as the “unit of analysis” instead of each individual sign. Backhaus (2007) cited from Tulp, Spolsky and Cooper, and Scollon and Scollon, and criticized the deficiency in identifying an analysis item by the semantic or physical entities, and suggested the beforehand clarification of the research items, such as how to count a sign with two sides carrying different information, how to treat the defaced sign and “denied inscriptions”. Gorter (2006) also discussed whether to include artifacts like the text on the moving objects (bus or car), old posters replaced and new one displayed, to the “unit of analysis”. Thus far, this issue of “unit of analysis” is rather complicated and put forward more requirements for the researchers to provide detailed description of what they are concentrating on in advance.

Moreover, the mixed use of language and scripts make the classification of survey items implicit. In her study, MacGregor (2003) first counted and grouped

signs in terms of language and then categorized the restaurant signs in Japanese according to the scripts (Chinese character, Hiragana, Katakana, Kanji+Roman), which help clarify the origin and change of the word or phrase. Rosenbaum et al. (1977), Smalley (1994), and Huebner (2006) similarly drew on scripts and decided how to make classification. Backhaus (2007) indicated that the research results might differ greatly due to whether one regards sign with English elements as signs containing English or not; and corresponding principles should be made to clarify how one count the “English-looking” signs. This issue is of great importance in the case of China and Japan because of the coexistence of different writing system, especially in Japan, where borrowed English words comprise 10% of the Japanese language.

The second main problem is the classification of signs. In previous works, signs traditionally have been divided into two types, “private vs. government” (Landry & Bourhis, 1997), “top-down vs. bottom-up” (Ben-Rafael, Shohamy, Amara & Trumper-Hecht, 2006), “official vs. non-official” (Backhaus, 2006), “private vs. public” (Ben-Rafeal, Shohamy & Barni, 2010), which share similar definition and scope: “sign issued by public authorities (like government, municipalities or public agencies), and those issued by individuals, associations or firms acting more or less autonomously in the limits of authorized regulations” (Ben-Rafeal, Shohamy & Barni, 2010). However, this seemingly resolute categorization overlooked the multi-faceted feature of the linguistic landscape. As Huebner (2009, p. 74) criticized, “the distinction between ‘top-down’ versus ‘bottom-up’ failed to capture the notion of agency and how it impacted language forms in the linguistic landscape.” He explained that there was a considerable difference in a sign designed by the government and multinationals; locally

owned business and hand-written notice; and graffiti differs from all of them. Therefore, a further analysis on the forms of different types of signs can be explored deeper by a clearer subdivision of the linguistic landscape.

The third main problem is the lack of theoretical framework. Linguistic landscape research has been criticized for insufficiency in applying theoretical models to substantiate the descriptive analysis. It is not until recent publications' appearance that theories from different disciplines are applied into linguistic landscape research, such as Ben-Rafael et al. (2006) and Huebner (2006) who made use of sociological theories or approaches; Shohamy & Gorter (2009) who expanded the methodology, theory and boundary of the scope of linguistic landscape. Therefore, an interdisciplinary approach is currently a trend for linguistic landscape research, but a commonly applicable approach with a powerful theoretical support that can bring more insights is still under exploration.

3.3 Design of This Study

3.3.1 Research Questions

Making use of a combination of qualitative, quantitative and ethnographic approaches, under the framework of the sociolinguistic "Speaking Model" of Hymes (1972) and the concepts of Geosemiotics (Scollon & Scollon, 2003), together with a survey of the actual language policy at various levels, language used on campus signs, and students' attitudes towards those signs in both countries, this research aims to illustrate and find out:

1. How do governments at different levels regulate the use of foreign languages in the public spheres in China and Japan?

2. How is the use of foreign languages in the public spheres promoted in practice in globalizing China and Japan?
3. What are the “Norms”, “Genres”, “Settings”, “Participants”, and “Ends” of the linguistic landscape of campus?
4. How languages are used in the campus linguistic landscape, and how the “Key”, “Instrumentalities”, and “Act Sequence” are represented?
5. How do the sign readers on campus respond to the campus linguistic landscape?

3.3.2 Research Sites

This study includes two sites for data collection, Ito Campus of Kyushu University and the campus of Beijing Language and Culture University (BLCU). In all, 223 signs on Ito Campus and 177 signs from BLCU Campus will be analyzed in order to get a view of the language situations or multilingualism of campuses in both China and Japan. All the signs are photographed, and categorized by languages adopted.

For the current study, any physically identifiable object is counted as an individual sign, including both written text and pictures or graphs, for example, a map with detailed information of place names and street lines on the board, a board labeled with the names of buildings, the front door of cafeteria with different notices. It is the individual “sign space” rather than the separate semantic entities or information shown on one signboard that is the unit of analysis in this study.

3.3.3 Methodology

3.3.3.1 Qualitative & Quantitative analysis

For the collection of campus signs, first, I focus on the outside of buildings, including signs on the main streets, signboards beside the crossroads, inscriptions on the classroom or research room buildings, plate names on the shops, signboards at the parking lots, and notices everywhere, because they are publicly displayed signs in the real sense. Besides, the inside of the library, cafeteria and gymnasium are also included for data collection, because they are more “public space” on campus with the function of providing services for all the students and teachers. Moreover, only signs displayed in a relatively stable position are counted in this study except for several advertisements, for example, inscriptions on stones, building names on iron signboards, guiding notices hanging on the ceilings and so on. The signs on moving objects like the loop bus on campus, the easily removable posters or notices, the defaced notices, signs with words that are too small to read a few meters away, and the like are all excluded from this study. A clearer classification will be made according to the genres of those signs in Chapter 4.

Through investigating the languages used on campus signs, further analysis can be made, because higher representation of one language over another are usually interpretive, and qualitative to some extent. Since the statistical data doesn't account for all the nuances in multimodal linguistic landscapes, social, demographical or language backgrounds and evidences will be also given. Official documents of language policy or planning are important to determine state policies. Moreover, the language policies are always used as guidance for language education, and help account for the construction of linguistic

landscapes. However, official documents and the descriptive analysis of the construction of linguistic landscape do not tell the full story. Talmy & Richards (2011) indicated,

In quantitative research, interviews have been used to generate insights into matters as varied as cognitive processes in language learning, lexical inference, motivation, language attitudes, program evaluation, language classroom pedagogy, language proficiency, and learner autonomy. In qualitative research, interviews have featured in ethnographies, case studies, and action research concerning an equally diverse array of topics, as well as narrative inquiries, (auto) biographical research, and, of course, interview studies, which investigate participants' identities, experiences, beliefs, life histories, and more.

Therefore, questionnaires and interview surveys will also be conducted to collect student's attitudes towards the multilingual environment. The questionnaire survey, using "convenience" and "purposeful" sampling, is comprised of 70 students (35 Japanese students and 35 overseas students) from Kyushu University, and 67 students (32 Chinese students and 35 overseas students) from Beijing Language and Culture University. On both campuses, the participants are divided as native students and overseas students, so the final results are based on two groups in each university. The similarities and differences between these two groups and two campuses will be also analyzed in Chapter 6. The questionnaire (See Appendices I-IV) contains two sections. Section A asks for some basic information about the participant, for example, the departments where they are studying, their status and their foreign language competence. Section B asks the participants' perceptions of the languages used on campus signs, their willingness to add foreign languages onto the signboards on campus and how they would order them on the signboards, and their specific opinions on the importance of foreign languages for campus signs. Further, the

interview (see Appendices V-VI) will provide more information in order to understand the students' specific opinions. Taking into account the multimodal character of the linguistic landscape, it is appropriate to combine the statistical data from both quantitative analysis and qualitative descriptions, which can help produce deeper analysis and more reliable findings.

3.3.3.2 Sociolinguistic Investigation

As a fast developing subfield of sociolinguistics, linguistic landscape has been taken as a new approach to study multilingualism, which often deals with language situation of a country and documents the language contacts and changes over time, thus it is closely connected with the social motivation. The prosperous linguistic landscape cannot be formed without all kinds of human activities. Gumperz & Hymes (1972) indicated,

Linguists tend to see social factors as secondary, contributing to the diffusion of changes whose source must be sought elsewhere. Labov shows social factors to be primary, and argues that the fact of inevitable, continual change in language is due to a further fact, namely, that at any given time some features of language are variables with social meaning, and differently selected for use accordingly (p. 31).

The linguistic landscape of campus is influenced greatly by the daily grind of everyone who needs to maintain a variety of activities. The signs with texts or images on them can be regarded as speech in its written form that communicates with anyone who steps into a "conversation" started by the agency of the signboard. To further explore the "social elements" that impact the formation of a linguistic landscape, I will adopt Hymes' "Speaking Model" that draws on ethnography of communication into the analysis of campus linguistic landscape, which is also based on Huebner's (2009) suggestions on this sociolinguistic

framework for linguistic landscape research. “Speaking (S-P-E-A-K-I-N-G)” is used as a mnemonic word that encompasses about seventeen components in the communicative act. Hymes (1972, pp. 59-65) mainly illustrates the following elements:

S: Setting and Scene. “Setting refers to the time and place of a speech act” and “Scene designates the psychological setting”.

P: Participants. The people who are involved in the “dialogue”: information sender (sign displayer) and receiver (sign reader).

E: Ends. Outcomes and goals of the communication.

A: Act Sequence. The form and content of message.

K: Key. “Tone, manner, or spirit in which an act is done”.

I: Instrumentalities. The form (channel, code and varieties) of the speech.

N: Norm. Governing rules for speaking and “believe system of a community”

G: Genres. “Formal characteristics traditionally recognized”

Huebner (2009) put forward some possibilities to apply this model in the linguistic landscape, based on which this study will flesh out his suggestions by investigating the campus signs under the framework of “speaking model”. Given the research theme of this study, “Norm (N)”, which is developed as policies on language usage and regulations on the display of signs, will be examined first in order to understand how national, provincial or municipal administrations play their roles in the formation of linguistic landscape. As Hymes (p. 36) noted, “Rules of speaking are the ways in which speakers associate particular modes of speaking, topics or message forms, with particular settings and activities.” As a main concern of this project, language policy offers a principle to interpret the construction of the linguistic landscape. Then, the “Genres” (G) of linguistic

landscape are discussed in terms of the “speech type”. Besides, the “Settings” (S) are explained by dividing the campus into different functional districts, based on which the “Participants” (P) and specific functions/ “Ends” (E) of signs are elaborated. Other components left are moved to Chapter 6 for the geosemiotic interpretation of those signs and code analysis.

3.3.3.3 Geosemiotic Interpretation

The interpretation of the construction of campus linguistic landscape is based on Scollon and Scollon’s (2003) theoretical framework of Geosemiotics. It is the study of semiotic aggregate and is taken as the “multiple semiotic systems in a dialogical interaction with each other” (p. 12). They indicate that this framework of geosemiotics refers to “the social meanings of the material placement of signs”, in particular, “the material world of the users of signs” (p. 4). As they claimed, “geosemiotics is the study of the social meaning of the material placement of signs and discourses and of our actions in the material world” (p. 2). It refers to four main elements of their illustration of Geosemiotics, “indexicality”, “interaction order”, “visual semiotics”, and “place semiotics”. The first component “indexicality” has been discussed in Chapter 2 where I introduced the semiotic background of linguistic landscape. In this section I will mainly talk about the other three components. The second semiotic system, “interaction order”, is a term borrowed from Goffman (1983, p.16), which “consists of social relationships we take up and try to maintain with the other people who are in our presence.” In effect, we experience many kinds of “interaction units” in our everyday life. For example, when we step into a supermarket, we may easily identify those who do not interact with others as “singles”, and those who walk

hand in hand with others as “withs”; we also identify the place to “queue” up and make payment in the “service encounter”; we can watch performance if it is on holiday, which is a “platform event”. The conception of “interactional order” indicates that all social activities bear semiotic meanings. Besides, the sense of time, perceptual spaces (adapted from E. T. Hall, 1966), interpersonal distances and personal front are developed as the resources of the interactional order. To sum up, as Scollon and Scollon stated, “the human body indexes the world” (p. 46). In the linguistic landscape of campus, the display of signs is the source of social activities where we can observe the interaction order. For example, on Ito Campus, a notice on the wall of a building informs that one can only enter the building with a password or student card on weekends and holidays, and if we see someone go to the panel, this behavior tells us it is not a workday. In another example, when we see a crowded cafeteria at noon, we are aware that class is dismissed. Usually the workers in the cafeteria put notice with arrows and directing information to help them make a queue for order and payment. Therefore, to examine signs as resources of interaction order can generate more insights of the campus linguistic landscape.

The third component of their framework is “visual semiotics”, which makes reference to the work of Gunther Kress and Theo van Leeuwen in their book *Reading Images: The Grammar of Visual Design* (1996) and limits the definition to the “semiotic systems of framed images and pictures (graphs, charts, books, posters, photos, art works, scientific illustrations, shop signs, or advertisements)” (p. 11). Scollon and Scollon (2003, p. 8) aim to “focus on all of the ways in which pictures (signs, images, graphs, texts, photographs, paintings, and all of the other combinations of these and others) are produced as

meaningful wholes for visual interpretation”. For the current study, how text and image/picture on campus signs interact with each other, will be discussed in chapter 6, which is still an under-explored area of analysis in studying linguistic landscape.

The fourth component “place semiotics” tends to include “architecture, urban planning, landscape planning and analysis, highway engineering, and so many other fields” (p. 8). This geosemiotic system is regarded as “the huge aggregation of semiotic systems which are not located in the persons of social actors or in the framed artifacts of visual semiotics” (p. 8). Scollon and Scollon illustrated “place semiotic” from three perspectives, code preference, inscriptions, emplacement and discourses in time and space, from which this synchronic study will specifically focus on the salience of language; the arrangement of multilingual text, the fonts, material and text vector of the campus signs.

3.3.3.4 Ethnographic Examination

Ethnography has an anthropological origin and has become a research field in which scholars from many different disciplines cooperate nowadays. Focusing on human society and culture, ethnography has many forms, such as life history, critical ethnography, and autoethnography (Merriam, 2009). Drawing on the investigation on the formation of the linguistic landscapes of multilingual campuses, and examination of language policies to provide detailed descriptions of social, cultural and political phenomenon of the multilingual and multi-ethnic communities on campus, this study is also ethnographic.

Derrida and Clough's study (as cited in Garvin, 2011, p. 54) indicate that writing and ethnography are the similar in nature and closely connected, because "they create the conditions that locate the social inside the text." Signs in its written form displayed on campus are telling stories about the people and things in the campus linguistic landscape. Moreover, signs on campus are also recording the university life and in turn the various activities also affect the formation of the campus linguistic landscape. As Norman Denzin (cited in Garvin, 2011, p. 54) states "ethnography is a form of inquiry and writing that produces descriptions and accounts about the ways of life of the writer and those written about." Surveying on students' attitudes is deeper investigation to know how the inhabitants from every corner of the world interact in their daily life. For the first time of overseas study in Japan, the author is quite impressed by the multilingual signs on campus, which stimulate the coming of the resolution that making the linguistic landscape of China and Japan as the PhD research project. With the experience of studying on campus in both countries, an ethnographic documentary of the multilingualism in the campus linguistic landscapes will be made.

This project focuses on the campus signs and the students living on campus, a specific geographic community. On campuses of both universities, the students come from every corner of the world to study and live together for a period of time. A special multi-ethnic community is thus formed. For the students from other countries, their stays in China or Japan are temporary, but for the native Chinese and Japanese, and for the campus of that city, the "foreign elements" are always there. Thus one can often see changes in the local facilities that serve the community. Living and studying on Ito Campus, the researcher, with her interest

and curiosity of multilingual environment, has intimate knowledge of the life and culture of the research sites. Staying on university campus for so many years in China, especially the 7 years from an undergraduate college student to an MA student, the researcher maintained close contact with overseas students in universities, which provides this research with sufficient information.

3.4 Summary

This Chapter, based on a brief review of the methodological issues in sampling, data counting, classification of data, and theoretical support in previous linguistic landscape studies, clarifies the research methodologies of this study. Focusing on the campus linguistic landscape, the signs in the public space are collected as samples from both Kyushu University and Beijing Language and Cultural University in this research. The “unit of analysis” for this study is the “sign space” where we can find an aggregate of separate information on one signboard. The examination of campus linguistic landscape is triangulated in terms of language policy, the language use on campus signs, and students’ attitudes, which are imbedded in the sociolinguistic and geosemiotic interpretation of the campus linguistic landscape.

CHAPTER 4 INVESTIGATING CAMPUS SIGNS UNDER THE FRAMEWORK OF HYMES' "SPEAKING MODEL"

4.1 Introduction

In this Chapter, I will examine the linguistic landscape of campus from the perspective of sociolinguistics by utilizing Hymes' "Speaking Model". My analysis is based on Huebner's (2010) inspirations and suggestions on this framework for studying linguistic landscape. In this model, "speaking (S-P-E-A-K-I-N-G)" is used as a mnemonic name and actually about seventeen components are recognized. For the purpose of this study, "N" (Norms) will be discussed first in order to clarify how the national language policies regulate language use in signs. As I have claimed in Section 1.4, "Norms" works as a "conceived space" that indicates the ideologies of the policy makers. Trumper-Hecht (2010) takes it as the "political dimension" that contributes to the formation of the linguistic landscape. It refers to "space as it is conceptualized by technocrats, planners, politicians and other policy makers" (p. 237). In addition, how the sign readers view such a construction of linguistic landscape is also a concern of Hymes' notion of "Norms of Interpretation". Following the "N" (Norms), the "G" (Genre) and "S" (Setting and Scene) will be analyzed together to identify the types of campus signs and their distribution, which characterize the linguistic landscape of campus. The participants (P) in the campus linguistic landscape and the functions ("E": Ends) of campus signs will be illustrated to specify the message displayers and receivers, and in what way the signs create the multilingual environment. The other three components, "A" (Act Sequence), "K" (Key) and "I" (Instrumentalities) will be discussed in Chapter 6 by incorporating geosemiotic interpretation that substantiates the descriptive analysis.

4.2 Norms: Language Policies and Regulations on Language in Signs

Hymes (1972) presented two stages of norms: norms of interaction and norms of interpretation. “Norms of interaction obviously implicate analysis of social structure, and social relationships generally, in a community” (p. 64). Huebner (2010) connects norms with the language policy in linguistic landscape research. Trumper-Hecht (2009) further points out that through exploring norms, the view of policy makers could be observed. This study will first investigate the governments’ attitudes towards the language policy concerning signs. Some studies on linguistic landscape had been done to investigate and understand the norms (Backhaus, 2009; Dal Negro, 2009; Hick, 2000; Plessis, 2010). For example, Backhaus (2009) focused on the linguistic landscape in the Canadian province of Quebec and the City of Tokyo, and elaborated how they differed significantly in adopting foreign languages in public spaces. Plessis (2010) noted the big difference in displaying official and non-official signs in term of volume and design in Bloemfontein, South Africa. Marten (2010) discussed how Latvian government designated Latvian as the State Language, and how it decreed that Latvian would be the only language to be used in all public spheres, and how it took different measures for the education of Latvian for the purpose of state integration. Huebner (2009) stated that the norms formed in the national or local policy regulated the language use in a given linguistic landscape and there were differences among municipal, provincial and national levels in the making of these regulations. Thus in the following sections (4.1.1 & 4.1.2), the state language policies and the specific provincial or municipal regulations on languages used on signs will be introduced and discussed. The questions of how a “silent consent” towards the use of foreign

languages in the public sphere is formed, how foreign languages are regulated by national laws, and how in practice the statuses of foreign languages in the public sphere are promoted at the municipal level in China and Japan, will be illustrated. Moreover, the unwritten rules with regard to the making of campus signs will be presented as well.

The second stage of norms is the “Norms of interpretation”, which “implicates the belief system of a community” (Hymes, 1972, p. 64). Free and open space can be provided to the understanding of the “Norms of Interaction”, thus the interpretation may differ considerably among those members from different communities. For example, as Backhaus (2009) surveyed, in the case of Quebec, the speakers of French who are the majority in Quebec think that the large amount of English speakers are an “incessant threat” to the survival of French language. So they try to promote the visibility of French in public spaces and exclude all other languages. In fact, French are a minority group within Canada, where English dominates, and the French language has more power and takes up saliency in public domains.

Huebner (2009) indicated that for the study of linguistic landscapes so far, to explore how the inhabitants living within it interpret the norms created by a place was a new direction, which asks the researchers to make close contact with inhabitants and conduct qualitative research. Thus, in this study, the investigation on students’ attitudes towards the campus signs explains how they (the multilingual and multiethnic groups on campus) interpret those regulations to a certain degree. Based on questionnaire and interview surveys conducted on both campuses, I will examine the students’ perceptions of language usage, their preference of language choice and language order on campus signs and their

evaluations on the importance of languages in Chapter Five and interpret students' attitudes further in Chapter Six. I will begin with the analysis of the language polices or regulations in China and Japan in the following sections first.

4.2.1 Regulations for Language Use in Signs in China

Nowadays in China, signs displayed in public places in Chinese usually are written in simplified Chinese characters, except for some rare intentional use of traditional Chinese characters. The simplification of Chinese characters has been a major issue since the mid-19th century. Several social movements have called for and worked for the simplification of Chinese characters. After the foundation of PRC, the National Chinese Character Reform Committee put forward the "Plan for Chinese Character Simplification", which was the government's effort at simplification of Chinese characters in Mainland China. The second important stage for accelerating the simplification of Chinese character is the government's publication of a new guideline of simplified Chinese Characters in 1986, which repealed a failed "Second Plan for the Simplification of Chinese Characters" proposed after the Great Cultural Revolution (Wang Jun, 1995). It is not until 2001 that the Chinese government issued the *Law of the People's Republic of China on the Standard spoken and Written Chinese Language*.

The discussion about adopting a standard for the Romanization of place names can be traced to the 1970s when Premier Zhou Enlai proposed to establish the use of standardized *pinyin* on Chinese maps for the purpose of helping other countries know China better (Zeng, 1989). The *pinyin* system, a form of Chinese characters Romanization, was established in the 1950s, and experienced several revisions. It is not until 1982 that the International

Organization for Standardization recognized *pinyin* as the international standard. Zeng Shiyong (1989), a cartographer, in his study on language used in maps indicated that in maps created soon after the founding of the PRC in 1949, all the place names were written in a Chinese Romanization, but the lack of standardization made some Chinese worried that it could become an obstacle to foreigners understanding China. Starting in 1953, the United Nations began a project for the standardization of geographical names for international business. One of the topics was how to set up a unified standard for place names for the countries that do not use roman letters. The Chinese government proposed the “Hanyupinyin Project”, which suggests the use of Chinese pinyin for the place names of China, in the Expert Group Meeting for the standardization conference of geographical names held by United Nations in 1975, and this project was passed by support from 43 votes out of 48 participants in the Third Meeting of the Standardization of Geographical Names held by United Nations in 1977. The State Council officially approved the use of *pinyin* for persons and places in 1978. This project is evidence of the attempt to legislate the use of Chinese *Pinyin* in geographical names. Yet some problems remain unsolved, for example, whether *Pinyin* should be used for the geographical general names, such as “road”, “street”, “river”, or “lake”? There are disagreements between using Pinyin and meaning-translation method (Zeng, 1989). In any cases, this project was a start in the attempt to regulate the language usage in place names and provides a direction for the formation of public signage in terms of linguistics.

The first formal and official regulation pertaining to sign usage in public place at the national level was *The Law of the People's Republic of China on the Standard Spoken and Written Chinese Language*, adopted at the 18th Meeting of

the Standing Committee of the Ninth National People's Congress of the People's Republic of China on October 31, 2000, which was promulgated and went into effect as of January 1, 2001. A specific Article was designed to regulate the language usage in signboards. Chapter II of the law, titled *Use of the Standard Spoken and Written Chinese Language*, Article 13 reads:

“The standardized Chinese characters shall be used as the basic characters in the service trade. Where both a foreign language and the Chinese language are used in signboards, advertisements, bulletins, signs, etc., as is needed by the trade, the standardized Chinese characters shall be used as far as the Chinese Language is concerned” (MOE of China, 2011; Database of China Law, 2011).

The national law, although indirectly, officially confirmed and accepted the use of foreign languages on signboards without putting any extra conditions such as the size, font or color. At the provincial and municipal level, the regulations usually follow the national law of China with only minor modifications. For example, Beijing, the capital of China, established the *Regulation on the Implementation of The Law of the People's Republic of China on the Standard Spoken and Written Chinese Language*, which says:

“State organs should adopt standardized Chinese Characters in name plates, official documents, stamps, placards, direction boards, sign boards, electronic screens and slogans” (Article 6).

“For schools and other educational organizations, standardized Chinese characters should be used as basic scripts for name plates, sign boards, direction boards, electronic screens, official documents, stamps, school newspapers, lectures, test papers, blackboard newspapers, blackboard writings and so on” (Article 8).

“For public service, standardized Chinese characters should be used as the basic script to provide service in name plates, direction boards, sign boards, shop signs, official documents, stamps, receipts, statements, instructions, electronic screens, advertisements, propaganda materials” (Article 11).
(Encyclopedia of Baidu, 2011)

This regulation regulates and stresses the use of standardized Chinese in each field in the society. Although the regulation does not mention adopting foreign

languages, but the lack of restrictive regulations makes it possible to infer that other languages can be used as long as the standard Chinese characters are used.

Shanghai, in its implementation of the same law, has a regulation that reads:

“In the following situations, standardized Chinese characters should be used as the basic script, (1) official document (2) schools and educational organizations (3) municipal publications (4) films and television screens (5) corporations and other organizations’ names and plate names (6) advertisements and facilities names in the public places (7) public services...”

(Language Work Online of Shanghai Second Polytechnic University, 2011)

In Guangdong province, *The Regulation on the Standard Spoken and Written Chinese Language* says:

“The scripts used in public places and facilities should be in accordance with the national *Law of the People's Republic of China on the Standard Spoken and Written Chinese Language*: the geographical general names for mountain, river, lake, sea, administrative division, road, street, lake, place name of great significance, and so on, should adopt standardized Chinese characters and Chinese Pinyin (foreign letters should not be used in the geographical general names); the signboards for station names, bridge names, scenic spots, historical site, and public places alike should adopt standardized Chinese character” (Article 14).

(Government of Guangdong Province)

Both Shanghai City and Guangdong Province accept the use of foreign languages in public places implicitly. The prohibition on the use of foreign letters for geographical general names in Guangdong is an exception, as the law itself also claims that it should follow the national law. This difference derives from the unsolved issue of how to translate place names, which has existed since the 1975 United Nations conference, which has been explained previously. In general, Chinese local governments have been accepting of the use of foreign letters on signs.

At the national level, the use of foreign languages is approved as long as standardized Chinese characters are used. Although Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong, as the leading cities or province in terms of economic and social development, do not explicitly support the use of foreign languages, in principle the local laws should follow and refer to the national laws, while giving more detailed information, as seen from the above articles. So it can be inferred that the use of foreign languages is also accepted locally and regionally, although the degree of acceptance varies by region. As Hu (2001) indicated neither the work of the Committee for Language Reform of China nor the work of the State Language Commission involved any statements on the status of foreign languages or the use or teaching of foreign languages. Moreover, foreign language teaching is under the jurisdiction of a department in the Ministry of Education of China. The Chinese government has never established an institution related to manage foreign language education. Therefore, further exploration turns to the examination of the foreign language education policy and its use in practice, which helps to explain the status of foreign languages better.

In terms of education, there is an ever-increasing demand for English in China, because of the impact of the global spread of English. Satisfying the escalating demand for English created by further opening up of the country is the first reason to teach English in primary schools. The Ministry of Education has also encouraged English language education as part of its reform of basic education in China. As stated in a Ministry of Education policy document, "The teaching of English in primary schools constitutes an important part of China's basic education reform in the early 21st century (Li, 2001)." The Ministry of Education of China released this policy in anticipation of the necessity to upgrade

its citizens' competence in English for the sake of the country's continuing development in an age of accelerated globalization.

In actual practice, the importance of foreign languages, especially English, is also emphasized in the public service area, as the translation of signs has been a heated topic over the past ten years. The convocation of the first Symposium on C & E Signs in a Global Context in 2005 put forward that it is an urgent task to improve the current situation of sign translation in China, in order to prepare for the 2008 Olympic Games and 2010 World Exposition. The symposiums promotional material said that "a good language environment" help to build a good international image and promote internationalization. This symposium was held by the Translators Association of China, directed by the Foreign Affairs Office of the Beijing Municipal government and sponsored by the Beijing International Studies University and the China Sign Network. The second Symposium on C & E Sign Translation was held by Tongji University in 2007. The participants invited were: Huang Youyi, the vice president of the Foreign Language Bureau of China and vice president of The International Federation of Translators; Zhu Lei, the director of the Shanghai Language Committee, and Qiu Yongle, the secretary of the Translators Association of Shenzhen. In the meeting, Huang pointed out the main issues in sign translation and put forward that those problems are not only a matter of academics, but also a matter of policy (Liu & Ye, 2007). Moreover, there is a growing call for the legislation of sign translation. And some leading cities also have taken the first steps in that direction. For instance, Beijing first compiled the *English Translation of Public Signs the General Specification* in 2006, which is a starting point for accelerating the normalization of public sign translation. Shenzhen City followed by publishing a comprehensive

Chinese-English Dictionary of Public Signs in Shenzhen in 2010 for Shenzhen city, which is supported by the Shenzhen government and the Translators Association of Shenzhen. Both regulations provide reference to the Chinese-English translation of public signs. In 2011, the Shaanxi Bureau of Quality and Technical Supervision released the *Guidelines for English Translations in Public Places*, which contained three main parts: General Specifications, Public Transportation, and Tourism. Many local governments have also made similar guidelines to provide C & E sign translation service, such as Shanghai, Zhejiang Province, and Jiangsu Province. These government efforts have sped up the process of standardizing sign translation.

However, so far little official attention has been paid to multilingual sign translation in China. Several scholars have noticed the translation of signs in other foreign languages (Huang & Du, 2009; Lu, 2007, Liu & Zhang, 2007; Sun, 2009). Lu (2007) suggested that more multilingual signs should be used in stadiums. Liu & Zhang (2007) mentioned that in many public places signs are bilingual and multilingual. Huang & Du (2009) held that it is unnecessary to put so many languages on the signboards. Sun (2009) found that in Wenzhou, English, Japanese, Korean, Spanish and so on were widely used. Thus a diverse linguistic landscape has formed with the coexistence of Chinese-only signs, bilingual signs, multilingual signs, and foreign languages-only signs.

To conclude, the status of foreign languages can be observed through an examination of the making of language education policy. However, the policy regarding the use of foreign languages in signs is not explicitly and officially established or confirmed in China's laws or regulations. Its importance is strengthened more by their use in practice. For instance, the holding of many

public symposiums on sign translation indicates the cooperation between academic organizations, governments and social organizations. The municipally made C&E guidelines or dictionaries of signs show the leading cities' efforts for improving the current situation of language use in order to provide a welcoming language atmosphere.

4.2.2 The Promotion of Foreign Languages Used in Signs in Japan

There are four scripts in the Japanese writing system: Kanji, Hiragana, Katakana, and Roman alphabet. It is common to see combinations of different scripts in the signs in public places. Japan started adopting the Chinese writing system from the sixth century, and the phonetic kana scripts for Japanese grammar and pronunciation based on Chinese characters had gradually formed by the ninth century. At the beginning of Meiji Period (1868-1912), there was a mixture of Chinese characters and katakana (Gottlieb, 2005). Similar to China, the government got involved in making formal language policies for the first time in the late 19th century. As Gottlieb (2005, p. 56) indicates, "Japan today has a century of hard-won experience with language policy formation behind it." It is not until the middle of the 1880s that statesmen and intellectuals realized the necessity of a standard form of both spoken and written Japanese. The National Language Research Council, established in 1902 within the Ministry of Education, put forward a standard form of Japanese, *hyōjungo*, for writing and formal speaking in 1916, which derived from the dialect of the educated population of the Tokyo Yamanote district. However, there were constant controversies concerning script reform during the first half of the twentieth century, including the failure of the Diet to pass any of the proposals for script simplification made

by the Ministry of Education. As a result, all official effort at language planning made before World War II failed. After World War II, the Ministry of Education was able to implement policies to reform kana spelling, simplify Kanji characters, and reduced the number of characters used. The Ministry revised the Kanji characters again in 1981 with the issue of the List of Character for General Use (Jōyō Kanji Hyō) (Gottlieb, 2005, pp. 58-61).

The history of studying language use in public places in Japan can be dated from 1972. Y. Masai (1972), a Japanese geographer, who was among the first to use the term linguistic landscape, investigated the language use on shop signs in the Shinjuku area, one of the centers of metropolitan Tokyo. Backhaus (2009) indicated that at the beginning of the 1980s, the use of Japanese language in Kanji and two indigenous syllabaries showed that Japan was still a monolingual country. As he cited from Leclerc (1989, pp. 240-241) and stated, at that time, few Japanese-English bilingual signs could be found in bigger train stations and subways; In later studies, Masai (1983) recorded that foreign languages were occasionally found in commercial signs, which shaped an exotic sense. Backhaus (2006) stated that the notion of taking Japan as prototype of a monolingual country had been undermined by recent publications on Japan's linguistic heterogeneity. Moreover, Backhaus (2009, p. 162) claimed that "though public awareness of the constant influx of foreign, particularly English, vocabulary has been high, to the present day no language laws exist to regulate its use on signs or in any other domains of public communication."

As the pace of "being internationalized" is speeding up, the number of foreign residents is growing. Moreover, the number of tourists, scholars and businessmen coming to Japan is rising, thus how to adapt the linguistic

landscape to the constantly increasing foreigners has become a significant issue. As Gottlieb (2012, p. 34) noted, “Japan’s registered foreign population...has been steadily increasing for nearly three decades as a result of globalization-induced population flows.” She also indicated that the number of registered foreign residents rose up to 2 million (including the third or fourth generations of the old comers in the Korean and Chinese Communities) by the end of 2008, the majority of whom are from China, Korea, Brazil and so on, all together 190 countries. Taking into account this situation, many efforts have been made for providing bilingual and multilingual services in Japan. For example, The Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications made a “Multicultural Coexistence Promotion Plan” in March 2006 because of the accelerated progress of globalization after 1980s, which brought much international communication for Japanese, along with increasing foreign residents and overseas students. Therefore, providing multilingual information, media, services for those people become a major concern of the central government. To meet the needs, Japan Tourism Agency of Ministry of Land, Infrastructure, Transport and Tourism also promoted a plan to improve the availability of multilingual information in 2010, aiming at help international visitors travel in Japan. The central government has been working for making guidelines, manuals, plans, and the like to encourage the implementation of “Multicultural Coexistence”, but much practical work was done at the local level. Tokyo, as the pioneer, first saw those efforts. Since the early 1990s, the Tokyo Metropolitan Government (TMG), the local administrations, and the local government have released a variety of documents. Backhaus (2009) provided some in his comparative study on rules and regulations in the linguistic landscape of Quebec and Tokyo, and this study will

adopt three relative regulations from his study to analyze the rules for language usage in signs.

(1) Tokyo Manual about Official Signs (1991, p. 16)

In order to keep up with internationalization, we make it a principle to use Japanese together with English

To make place name, etc., easily understandable to small children and foreigners who can read Hiragana, we further make it a principle to add Hiragana to Japanese-English information about names.

(As cited in Backhaus, 2009, p. 162)

This is an early rule made for writing official signs. Some basic principles about how to use languages on signs are also proposed. This manual regulates the spelling system and writing in detail because there are two Japanese Romanization rules and written Japanese contains four scripts. It also discusses issues like fonts, colors and size of English used in the text (Backhaus, 2009). The Sign Manual approved Japanese-English bilingualism on public signs with the condition that the salience of Japanese on signs should be preserved. The Tokyo Metropolitan Government made the first step to be internationalized.

(2) Sign System Guidebook for Public Transport Passenger Facilities

(2002, p. 16)

Depending on the profile of an area's visitors, it is desirable that languages other than Japanese and English should be used.

(As cited in Backhaus, 2009, p. 164)

The Ministry of Land, Infrastructure and Transport issued the *Sign System Guidebook for Public Transport Passenger Facilities*, which is stimulated by the promulgation of the Transport Accessibility Improvement Law in 2000. The guidebook suggested putting English into all the Japanese signs in railway stations and also provided many rules concerning Romanization principles and

writing. This is also the first official approval for the adoption of non-English foreign languages on signs. It is noteworthy that such a guidebook designed by a state ministry is instructive for the metropolitan governments across the whole nation.

(3) Guide for Making City Writing Easy to Understand Also to Foreigners (2003)

Tokyo Metropolitan Government issued the *Guide for Making City Writing Easy to Understand Also to Foreigners* in 2003. This guide is designed for signs targeted at pedestrians. Below are some major concerns in the guide for language use on signs:

a. Romanized text (English)

In principle, all Japanese writing is given together with Romanized text (English).

Japanese proper nouns are given in the Roman alphabet, common nouns are given in English. An interlinear order with Japanese writing above and the Romanized text below is desirable so that the correspondence between Japanese and the foreign language is understood.

b. Romanized text (English) + a number of other languages

In view of the number of registered foreign travelers in Tokyo, four languages are used preferentially: Japanese, English, Chinese (simplified characters), and Korean...

c. Furigana

Mainly thinking of foreigners who are living in Tokyo as target group, annotating Kanji with Furigana will have an effect, too.

(As cited in Backhaus, 2009, p. 165; Tokyo Metropolitan Government, 2003, p. 9)

This guidebook adheres to some basic principles of language use by referring to previous manuals, such as the Romanization of proper nouns, the translation of common names, the salient position of Japanese, and the use of Hiragana as a supplementary element (Backhaus, 2009). It is noteworthy that the adoption of Chinese and Korean are officially confirmed, given the fact that they are two

largest linguistic minority groups of Tokyo. In addition, it recommends that these rules are applicable to official as well as private signs.

The rules on the use of foreign languages are commonly found in the manuals or guidelines at various provincial and municipal levels, for a variety of purposes, such as developing the tourist industry (Hokkaido Prefecture, Okinawa Prefecture, Aso City and Nagano City), establishing an international metropolis (Kitakyushu City) and making foreigners' lives more convenient (Akita Prefecture, Fukuoka City). Those rules, taking into account of the actual local situations and features, account for the formation and development of the regulations on the use of foreign languages in signs.

The Japanese Ministry of Land, Infrastructure, Transport and Tourism issued the *Guideline on Signs for Activating Tourism* in 2005, which provided principles for the making of signs at regional and municipal levels. This guideline also indicates that multilingual signs should be used when it is necessary. Before the appearance of the guideline, however, Kitakyushu City had already published its own *English Sign Manual* in 2004, which stipulated the use of English in many details, such as the use of hyphens, how to express macrons and some tips for translating Japanese into English. Kitakyushu issued both *English Signs Manual* in 2004 and *Korean Sign Manual* in 2011, for the purpose of becoming an international metropolis.

The *Guideline for Signs of Nagano City* provided examples of ordering six languages on a signboard, in Japanese, English, Chinese (Traditional form), Chinese (Simplified form), Korean and Portuguese. The *Guideline for Public Signs of Yokohama City* regulated that the size of foreign languages should be 60% of Japanese Characters. In Fukuoka, although there is no particular manual made

for signs, the regulations on displaying signs are clarified in the *Guiding Principles of Providing Information for Foreigners*, issued in 2005. It pointed out some basic instructions:

(1) At minimum, Japanese and English should be used together.

(2) For proper names (for example, public facilities and stations), there are no established translations in Chinese and Korean, and only the Japanese reading makes sense, so Japanese characters and Roman letters should be used with Hiragana, in order to teach people the Japanese way of reading.

(3) In the airport, main stations, intersections and the gathering places of a large number of people, four languages (Japanese, English, Chinese, and Korean) should be used together on the notice boards.

(4) For the commonly used facilities (elevator, toilet and so on), diagrams should be adopted to help foreigners to understand them easier.

(Fukuoka City, 2005, p. 10)

Therefore, the role of foreign languages and their importance has been emphasized and promoted constantly. The Japanese governments have been doing significant planning for multilingual service. As Gottlieb (2009) indicated that immigration had expanded significantly since the early 1980s, so besides the languages of existing ethnic Korean and Chinese communities, now there were also languages spoken by an increasingly diverse population of migrant workers. She also noted that it is local rather than national government which had taken the lead in meeting foreign residents' language needs; a much wider range of language classes (often run by volunteers through local international associations) and other multilingual services for locals was provided by local governments and civil society organizations such as NGOs or NPOs. In addition, Japan government has been working for teaching foreign residents Japanese as their second language, which is an important language planning implemented together with Kokugo education

in order to make foreigners lives in Japan convenient. All in all, the Japanese national government demonstrates its affirmative attitude towards the status and importance of foreign languages by providing general instructions, with whom the local governments and various organizations cooperate by contributing more concrete and practical use of foreign languages in signs and many other areas.

4.2.3 The Guideline for Displaying Signs on Campus

To further investigate what are the norms for campus linguistic landscape, some background information about how signs should be made will be explored in this section. After visiting the related departments of both universities, such as the International Student and Researcher Support Center of Ito Campus, the Office of Oversea Student Affairs and Office of Capital Construction of BLCU Campus, it is found that there is no formal written regulation or guidebook for signs used on either campus. However, there are constant efforts from the university staff and students to improve signs in terms of design, translation, and display.

Before the construction of the new Ito Campus in 2009, a special committee was founded, and the display of campus signs was one topic on their agenda. The committee decided the translation of campus signs as an official pre-plan, for example, the English nameplates of buildings. In effect, as early as 2007, the Committee for International Communication of Kyushu University had provided the English job titles for the teachers, which were put on the nameplates outside the professors' offices. Besides, there are board meetings

once a month in each campus of Kyushu University, where the display and translation of signs are occasional topics along with other issues for discussion.

There are unwritten rules for the making of signs, according to the staff of the International Student and Research Center. For example, signs should be written in Japanese with English; other languages should also be adopted based on the numbers of the students. The staff indicates that in the cafeteria the serving areas are written on wooden signboards using Japanese, English, Chinese, and Korean. They said this was necessary to help overseas students “survive on campus”. In addition, due to the implementation of the “Global 30” project supported by the Japanese government in 2009, the number of students is expected to grow dramatically. Considering this situation, the idea of forming a special student organization was proposed. As a result, the *Student Committee for Internationalization* was established in July 2011. Working for the globalization of the campus, it covers three main tasks: providing support for the overseas students’ lives; promoting the communication between Japanese students and overseas students; and the internationalization of Japanese students. In 2012, they proposed a plan to display all campus signs in both Japanese and English. The members of this committee looked for the Japanese-only signs, and reported the results to the appropriate administrators to get them revised. This activity, along with their other work, contributed to the globalization of campus. As the efforts are from both the administration of the university and the student organization, it can be expected that more changes will follow based on the current procedures.

Beijing Language and Culture University, while not making as great an effort as Kyushu University, has established some basic principles and efforts on

the management of signs. According to a staff member at the Office of Overseas Student Affairs, there is no written rule for the making of signs, but to their knowledge, usually they include English on the signboards located in the administrative/office area. They have not considered using other languages to be necessary, because they asserted most of the overseas students can understand English, and the Japanese and Koreans who compose the majority of overseas students can read most of Chinese characters. How this rule is applied to the real representation will be discussed in Chapter Five. Another notion regarding the management of campus signs is from another staff member in the Office of Capital Construction of BLCU Campus. He mentioned that each department is responsible for its own area, including how the signs are designed and displayed within their jurisdiction. The genres identified on campus will account for some of these differences.

4.2.4 Discussion

As we have observed, there are slight differences in the “Norms of Interaction” (policies or regulations on the display of signs) between China and Japan. China is still just beginning to explore making language policies for signs on display. At the national level, although there is no clear promotion of adopting languages other than Chinese, the *Law of the People’s Republic of China on the Standard Spoken and Written Chinese Language* statement, “Where both a foreign language and the Chinese language are used in signboards, advertisements, bulletins, signs, etc., as is needed by the trade, the standardized Chinese characters shall be used as far as the Chinese Language is concerned” implies that the use of foreign languages is approved by the Chinese government.

Provincial and municipal governments, which usually follow the decisions of the central government, have modified this law, adding more details, and deciding on what languages to use and other local regulations on language usage.

Moreover, some governments of larger municipalities, such as Beijing and Shanghai, have made their own guidebooks for the English translation of signs to provide convenient service and build a good image, although these guides are not added to the local laws or regulations as written policies. The supportive role of local governments in adopting foreign languages is obvious. Beijing Language and Cultural University may or may not have been influenced by national or municipal policies, but its rules are basically in accordance with those laws. It is necessary to mention that the power of these rules does not reach to the service areas on campus (such as shops, restaurants, supermarkets, and so on) where a diversity of languages can be found. All in all, there is a “silent agreement” towards the use of foreign languages from the government, and the practical use of foreign languages at the local level can be observed.

In the case of Japan, the Japanese government and other organizations have made greater efforts. Although there is no law that regulates whether and how foreign languages should be used in the public sphere, they have actively pushed towards internationalization and the strengthening of foreign language education, especially English. Moreover, the promotion of using foreign languages is implemented at various levels in Japan. Tokyo has been the pioneer, the first to make rules and put them into practice. Spolsky (2004, p. 222) noted, “...The real language policy of a community is more likely to be found in its practices than in management.” Changes in language choice in the regulations over time have gradually made clear the positive acceptance of foreign languages.

It is important to point out that a major motivation for adopting foreign languages arises from the purpose of developing tourism. For example, the Ministry of Land, Infrastructure, Transport, and Tourism of Japan issued two guidebooks for the display of signs in 2004 and 2006 respectively, in which the use of foreign languages are regulated in terms of language choice and design. Chinese and Korean, the languages of two major tourist groups of Japan, are mentioned first. Similarly, many cities make their own guidebooks or manuals, in which we can find the promotion of using foreign languages. Those regulations may have exerted some influence on campus signs, as there is a consistency in language choice. As a matter of fact, Kyushu University has been working towards improving its campus signs. Staff and students work together to globalize the campus, in which providing multilingual signs is one important project. Therefore, the use of foreign languages is promoted harder in Japan than in China despite the absence of any binding law.

The campuses of both universities are an aggregation of students from many different countries and they compose a multilingual community on campus, which is not an uncommon phenomenon worldwide, as overseas study has become increasingly popular due to the impact of internationalization. In particular, the world-famous and comprehensive universities, who are accepting large numbers of foreign students and creating more “multilingual communities” on campus, are experiencing the globalizing process. According to data statistics of the fact book of Kyushu University in 2011, overseas students gather from 83 different countries and regions. Beijing Language and Culture University, as it claims in its homepage, it has accepted students from 176 countries since its foundation. The linguistic landscape of campus is an important constituent part

of the linguistic landscape of a city and a country, as universities are places where many international academic communications are held; where exchanges between students and scholars of different cultural backgrounds are easily made; and where local facilities and services are established to accommodate both native and foreign students' lives. How the linguistic landscape is shaped indicates in what ways students from different countries interact and communicate, which also enriches the community's overall understanding towards a larger linguistic landscape. Through the examination on the "Norms of Interaction" at different levels, this study will go further to investigate the influence of those regulation or rules and their implementation in the actual construction of campus linguistic landscape.

4.3 Genres of the Campus Linguistic Landscape

Hymes (1972, p. 65) stated, "The notion of genre implies the possibility of identifying formal characteristics traditionally recognized." In my opinion, for linguistic landscape, its genre refers to the scope of research in a broad sense, and the classification of different types of signs in a narrow sense. As the review (section 2.3) shows there are arguments regarding whether linguistic landscape should only focus on languages used. According to Landry and Bourhis' (1997) notion, the linguistic landscape research first drew focus on "linguistic objects" in public spaces, based on which Gorter (2006) explored multilingualism. However, many recent publications confounded this notion and suggested expanding the research scope and including "multimodal literacies" (Itagi & Singh, 2002; Shohamy & Gorter, 2009). To what extent the scope of linguistic landscape should be expanded is still a question, but there is a tendency to

challenge the traditional notion of investigating languages solely within a linguistic landscape. Undoubtedly, signs are the carrier of the linguistic landscape, but it is what is showed on a sign, be it language, image, or whatever else that is the concern of defining the scope of linguistic landscape.

The second concern of genre is the categorization of the signs that compose a linguistic landscape, which is a quite complicated issue. Ben-Rafael et al. (2006, p. 10) included “street signs, commercial signs, billboards, signs on national and municipal institutes, trade names, and personal study plates or public notices” in his study, which partially made use of Landry and Bourhis’ definition as a reference. Shohamy & Gorter (2009) suggested that the research should study language found in cities, indoor markets and outdoor shopping centers, shops, schools, offices of governments and big corporations, moving buses, beaches and the cyber space. It is obvious that there is overlap among those divisions, because some items do not intrinsically differ from others. Swales (1990) noted the identification of genres could bring important source of insight that help produce interpretation (p. 58). The scope of linguistic landscape studies has been expanded and generalized constantly, which brings problems of identifying the genres in the narrow sense at the same time.

Huebner (2009) suggested that the a close examination of the genres found among the various artifacts within a given linguistic landscape can be used to solve problems like the great differences in the size of signs analyzed, the lack of principled ways to take into account types of items, and the impossibility of doing comparative statements across studies. It seems that this method could benefit linguistic landscape analysis; however, in practice, even if each artifact is classified, the codification also differs from place to place, not to speak of the

uncountable numbers. For instance, as Huebner (2009) also indicated, Cenoz and Gorter's study found "a degree of arbitrariness" in the codification in their study on two multilingual cities in Friesland and Basque Country. From my observation on both campuses, I found that it was still difficult to conclude and generalize the principles for the making of campus signs, because of the complexity in the writing style, the materials for signboards, the space for signs and so on. Whether genres can be clearly defined in a given linguistic landscape as individual artifacts and by putting a "nomenclature" is another question facing the researcher; or it may lead researchers to many other indefinable genres.

The current research on campus signs is a specified domain of linguistic landscape. According to Landry and Bourhis' categorization, campus signs belong to the "government sign", as they (Landry & Bourhis, 1997, p. 26) stated, "government sign refers to public signs used by national, regional, or municipal governments in the following domains: road signs, place names, street names, and inscriptions on government buildings including...universities..." To make it clearer, the linguistic landscape of campus partially contains some government signs. As a matter of fact, although different from city centers, the linguistic landscape of campus is richer than what people have in mind. In some sense, it is a "mini-city". As Chapter 3 (Section 3.3.3.1) indicates, the samples taken from campus comprise signs from each corner of the campus, such as the Showa/Nishitetsu bus routes, bus stops, tollgate, restaurants, bookshops, convenience stores, gymnasiums, library, classroom buildings, office buildings, open plazas, and parking lots. The linguistic landscape of campus, as one sub-domain of the linguistic landscape, is of great research value, because of its existence as a special multilingual community within a country. Similarly,

adopting Landry and Bourhis' definition, this study includes linguistic artifacts like notices, building names, inscriptions, shop names, station names, advertisements and so on. The one condition for sample selection that makes this study practical and feasible is the collection of signs in a relatively stable position (except for several advertisements). Linguistic landscape studies have been criticized because of the use of unclear sample. This condition for sample collection can make the linguistic landscape research more manageable. As it has been claimed in Chapter 3 (section 3.3.2), it is the individual "sign space" rather than the separate semantic entities or information shown on one signboard that is the unit of analysis in this study.

In literature review, this study found that special genres of linguistic landscape had been given much attention, especially shop signs, commercial signs, advertisements, and so on, which are indispensable components of a linguistic landscape. Taking Huebner's suggestion of focusing on a given linguistic landscape, this study intends to have a try to identify and describe the genres of campus linguistic landscape. As I have argued, "sign space" is the unit of analysis in this study. Moreover, the composition of campus linguistic landscape is not as concise as you might think. The classification and description of those genres will substantiate those arguments, which will be given in the tables (Table 4-2 & Table 4-3) in the next section with their settings. The functions concerning those genres will be analyzed in Section 4.6.

4.4 Setting and Scene: Framing the Functional Districts on Campus

“Setting” is “the time and place of a speech act and, in general, to the physical circumstance”, in contrast, “Scene” refers to the psychological environment (Hymes, 1972, p. 60). For the study of linguistic landscape, data can be collected from a variety of physical settings. Cenoz and Gorter (2006) studied the language use of the shopping districts of two European city centers. Backhaus (2007) selected 29 stations of a circular railway line connecting Tokyo’s major city centers. Hanauer (2009) explored the signs of a professional microbiology laboratory within the context of multimodal semiotics. Huebner (2009, p. 72) stated, “The nature and content of a sign, for example, is affected by its placement vis-à-vis readers” and indicates, “few studies consider the immediate context of an artifact of LL.” This section will analyze the context (physical environment) of campus signs, under which the campus signs are placed and formed, with the genres identified in them.

Public places traditionally have been the sites for sampling and the center of studying linguistic landscape, thus the public domain becomes an important context of linguistic landscape research. As has been discussed in Section 2.3 of Chapter 2, “public sign” was once used as a substitution of “linguistic landscape”, in which the context was biased towards “public domain” in its definition. Hanauer (2009) emphasized Gorter’s (2006) notion and stated, “The core of LL research is the understanding that language surrounds us in our everyday life and within multiple public settings.” This study, as it has claimed (in Section 3.3.3.1), also focuses on the “public space” of campus. In the linguistic landscape of campus, “public space” refers to the place where groups of people (students mainly) gather, and this is an understanding in a narrow sense, because for the

outsiders and visitors, the campus is “private” in a broad sense. In addition, within this public sphere, there are still different sub-settings undiscovered. In Shohamy and Gorter’s (2009) collection of works that expands the “scenery” of linguistic landscape, Hanauer (2009) explored linguistic landscape in “educational scientific context” by drawing on the linguistic landscape of a professional biology laboratory, which is subdivided into different settings according to its functional areas; thus the context is interpreted as “educational scientific setting” first, and the four types of laboratory areas further specify the settings into: “Wet” Microbiology Laboratory, Office Space, Corridor Space, Kitchen Area, which helps the identification of different genres. The results of his classification are shown in Table 4-1.

Table 4- 1: Frequency of wall space genres according to laboratory area

Laboratory area	Identified genre	Frequency
"Wet" Laboratory	Sticky notes	43
	Warning signs	13
	Visual data	7
	Data tables	7
	White board	2
Corridor	Conference posters	7
	Warning signs	4
	Genome maps-Scientific graffiti	3
	General posting boards	2
	Blackboard	1
Office	White/black boards	4
	Genome maps-scientific graffiti	12
	Visual data	6
Kitchen	White board	1

(Hanauer, 2009, p. 294)

Without clarifying the settings, the genres cannot be identified clearly either. Hanauer (2009, p. 288) cited from Bhatia, Hanauer, and Swales, and indicated “genre theory and rhetorical contexts view genre as situated and functioning within specific discourse communities.” Therefore, the current study takes campus as a broader setting and by dividing it into different functional districts (sub-settings), the context of the signs is specified and the genres are thus identified (See Table 4-2 & Table 4-3).

**Table 4- 2: Frequency of Campus Sign Genres Based on Settings
(Ito Campus: n=223)**

Location	Settings	Identified genre	Frequency
Inside	Cafeteria 29	Notice board/Paper notice	24
		Nameplate	2
		Menu	2
		Cafeteria layout	1
	Library 29	Notice board/Paper notice	25
		Map	2
		Advertisement	1
		Nameplate	1
	Gymnasium 34	Notice board/Paper notice	24
		Map	3
		Nameplate	6
		Timetable	1
	Outside	Parking lot 28	Notice board
Bus station 23		Notice board/Paper notice	15
		Timetable	4
		Nameplate	3
		Area map	1
Shop 9		Nameplate	5
		Door front notice	4
Open Plaza 5		Notice Board	4
		Stone inscription	1
Classroom building 29		Nameplate	23
		Paper notice	4
		Classroom layout	2
Restaurant 6		Nameplate	3
		Door front notice	3
Others 31		Notice	18
		Advertisement	5
		Inscription	6
	Nameplate	1	
	Campus map	1	

Table 4- 3: Frequency of Campus Sign Genres Based on Settings (BLCU Campus: n=189)			
Location	Settings	Identified genre	Frequency
Inside	Cafeteria 20	Notice board	13
		Nameplate	2
		Advertisement	2
		Poetics	2
		Menu	1
	Library 13	Notice board/Paper notice	10
		Motto	2
		Nameplate	1
	Gymnasium/Playground 33	Notice board/Paper notice	24
		Nameplate	6
		Advertisement	2
		Slogan	1
	Outside	Parking lot 7	Notice board
Shop 31		Nameplate	15
		Notice board	14
		Advertisement	2
Classroom building 14		Nameplate	11
		Notice board	2
		Banner	1
Other buildings 15		Nameplate	13
		Notice board	2
Restaurant 14		Notice board	7
		Advertisement	5
		Nameplate	2
Others 42		Notice board	21
		Motto inscription	8
		Advertisement	7
	Name inscription	2	
	Campus map	2	
	Banner	2	

The genres identified are based on the functional districts of Ito Campus and BLCU Campus, and their distinct features further distinguish them from others in each district. It can be concluded from the tables that “notices” constitute the majority of the genres. Obviously, those genres differ greatly from

the genres found in Hanauer's laboratories, because of the influence of the context that individualizes them, and the genres characterize the linguistic landscape of campuses and their functional districts. The characteristics of each of these genres are explicated as follows:

Nameplate. In almost every district (setting) on campus, nameplates can be found, such as the front doors of cafeterias, libraries, shops and so on. For most of the nameplates on campus, English translations are provided. The common purpose of these nameplates is to tell the readers what these places are. Since those nameplates are usually for permanent use, many of them are made of metal or other "immortal" materials. It is noteworthy that Kyushu University and Beijing Language and Cultural University engrave their names on marble and stone respectively, which creates a sense of immortality and solemnness. The nameplates usually take two forms: a single nameplate, which is stuck on the front of the building, and a nameplate board, on which several names of buildings are presented. Among those nameplates, it is found that different settings "create" different types of nameplates; for example, on Ito Campus, all the nameplates for classroom buildings share the same size, color, font, material and writing style, like Center Zone 1, West 2, and West 4; on both campuses, for classroom buildings and research centers, there is consistency in displaying the nameplate boards in metal, and those signboards share the same size, color, font, and style separately with English translations. In contrast, nameplates for shops, convenience stores and restaurants present more individuality. Each of them has their own design for their nameplates, which differentiate them considerably from others. In term of design, the size of those nameplates is usually large and eye-catching, and they are spatially close to the objects to which they are

referring. Those nameplates are very efficient in informing and directing the readers on campus. Without nameplates, the campus cannot be easily identified and people on campus would be greatly inconvenienced.

Notice. This survey shows that the majority of campus signs are in the forms of notices. However, they are rarely translated into English on campus. Their functions are generally categorized as: informing, directing, reminding, and warning (see section 4.6 for more discussion). Similar to nameplates, notices are also found in almost every setting. The different functions impact the overall tone of those notices. First, in each setting a certain amount of notices carry the informing function. This function is most often found in the business setting, such as the restaurants and shops on campus. Usually the owners put a notice on the front doors or windows, where information like sales time, new dishes, and new discounts, are displayed. Moreover, those notices tend to change on a frequent basis. With a soft tone, those signs aim to attract readers in both design and display. Pictures are often added to those kinds of notices with fascinating words.

Second, directing signs appear more often in the open plazas and parking lots. This type of notice usually includes an arrow and assists the readers to the place they are heading for correctly. Visitors or first-time students or teachers can have a difficult time finding out which way leads them to the right place. Such direction notices with clear destination and direction are often placed at intersections where one could easily get lost.

Third, reminding signs are found most often in the library, gymnasium, and cafeteria. For example: a notice on the locker saying “For One Day’s Use Only”; “Beware of Your Belongings”. The common purpose of these three places

is providing service to everyone on campus, which decides the role of the speaker (sign displayer). As they are usually the gathering places of a large number of people, keeping good order is the main concern of displaying a sign, thus the overall tone is friendly and kind. With regard to the placement of those notices, they are usually situated in a special area within a setting, such as the place for making a queue in the cafeteria, the counter for borrowing books in the library, and the fitting room in the gymnasium.

Fourth, warning signs are used widely in the gymnasium and parking lots. It is obvious that those notices are for the sake of users' safety or for claiming preserved rights. For the parking lots, the notice is usually placed at the entrance with detailed prohibitions, like *Staff of General Education Only, No Parking, and Disabled Only*. To keep good order on campus, those notices are usually put in a striking position to draw the intended readers' attention. Moreover, the words are usually in bigger size, in yellow or red color, sometimes with signs (images like slarcle) added. One difference is found in the type of warning signs found in the parking lots and gymnasium. The signboards in the parking lot are almost all well designed and made of metal, which prevent them from being destroyed easily; but the warning notices in the gymnasium are almost all made of paper, which can age and yellow with time. Finally, for all these four types of signs, the authorship varies from one setting to another, as will be further discussed (section 4.5).

Menu. Menu is a distinct genre found in the cafeterias and some restaurants. On Ito Campus, at a cafeteria entrance, there is a wallboard on which small menu items signs change on at least a daily basis. The staff removes some menu signs constantly every day, because some dishes sell out. On each of menu

item sign, the name of a dish is given on the top in a large font with the image of the dish under it, and the price at the bottom right corner of the notice. For most of them, pictures are provided, unless it is a new dish. In addition, the Japanese reading rather than the English translation of those dishes are given on those menu item signs. Those menu item signs work as helpful tools at the peak time for lunch or dinner, as all the classes are released at the same time. The students rush to the cafeteria together, but with the help of the menu item signs, the process of making an order becomes more efficient, because this wallboard with menu item signs provide all the information for the dishes served that day, and the students can make a decision before they go inside and queue up at the exact counter. For restaurants, the menu is usually more stable, and they provide more dishes than the cafeterias. Moreover, a newly made dish is advertised by putting another notice on the door or window. The items are featured in an attractive and colorful signboard of pictures with concise descriptions used as names.

Map/Layout. A map of campus is found at the open plaza of Ito Campus, and the entrance gate of BLCU Campus. Since maps are important tools for first-time visitors and the information on it is concise, English translations are usually provided. Layouts for the classroom buildings and cafeterias are also found in front of those buildings. The campus maps provide general information for the location of each department or research institute. If one goes to a specific building, the layout is displayed to help the reader find an exact room. Those maps and layouts are helpful not only for the visitors or first-timers, but also for those who have been on campus for a long time, because they do not pay frequent visits to each building, instead they are just familiar with the buildings they are studying or working in every day.

Advertisement. There are not so many advertisements found on Ito Campus as on BLCU Campus. From their distribution, it is found they cover each setting of the campus. However, it is worthwhile to note that for different settings they target different groups of people. For example, near the playground of BLCU, two big signboards are displayed which are advertisements for a club and a training course for kungfu and tennis. Obviously, these two boards aim to attract people who like sports. Similarly, on Ito Campus, a real estate agent advertises itself near the cafeteria. It targets the students on campus, as they are potential customers who will look for house renting. Generally speaking, the advertisements do not constitute a large proportion of campus signs, but they provide useful information for the ones who live on campus. Besides, some advertisements are even available in four languages, but most of time, part of their information is translated into English.

Timetable. A bus timetable is only found on Ito Campus, because there are bus stops inside the campus on the main road. As a matter of fact, the people who often take buses on campus keep printouts of the timetables, or make use of other resources to get the information. The bus timetable is used for double-checking or for visitors. Moreover, it is renewed once a year in April; based on the situation of the previous years, minor adjustments are made.

Statue Inscription. Inscriptions are found on statues on both campuses: the statue of the first president of Kyushu University in the open plaza of Ito Campus, and the Confucius statue in front of the library of BLCU Campus. Written in national languages, these inscriptions follow a special writing style of Chinese characters. This kind of display of signs tells a story about the university or spreads an ideology for the students and teachers on campus. They carry the

culture and conception of the existence of the universities. The two statues represent the two universities respectively and deliver a sense of being respected and admired.

Banner/Motto/Slogan/Poetics. These types of signs are found extensively on BLCU Campus but not on Ito Campus. Similar welcome banners are displayed on both campuses, reading “Welcome to Kyushu University/ Beijing Language and Culture University”. These banners appear at the beginning of a new semester in consideration of freshmen, and are removed soon. Mottos, slogan and poetics are only found on BLCU Campus. Many are famous proverbs from classical Chinese literature such as “Learning without thought means labor lost; thought without learning is perilous” (学而不思则罔，思而不学则殆) from Confucius, and “Constant dripping wears away the stone” (锲而不舍，金石可镂) from Xunzi, another great thinker of China. All these mottos encourage the readers to study harder and deliver the notion that these words are irrefutable truth from the great people in history. In a similar way, the poetics in the cafeteria are used to encourage cherishing the food; and slogans found in the gymnasium work to create a sense of determination. Although those signs compose a small proportion of campus signs, they make up an important part of the linguistic landscape of campus. Those types of signs are usually displayed in native language.

To sum up, so far many studies have been done in big cities, thus the nature and content of the cities, especially city centers, are better known by researchers, although they have not uncovered the specific genre and the placement. At the macro level, signs in the urban areas constitute the larger linguistic landscape of a city; further at the micro level, they bear the unique

characteristics of that city. The linguistic landscape of campus differs from urban signs in that it excludes large-sized billboards, eliminates advertisements in various forms, and puts more reminding or warning notices along with mottos, slogans and so on to keep good order and encourage the students to study hard. For campus, usually a peaceful and quiet atmosphere is required, so the sign density is relatively low compared with the city centers, where each sign is struggling for a space. The different genres identified are clarified in their settings with their different functions and designs. More discussion on the functions of those will be explicated in Section 4.6.

4.5 Participants: Agents, Audience and Bystanders

Hymes (1972, p. 58) stated that “Some rules of speaking require specification of three participants [addressor, addressee, hearer (audience), source, spokesman, addressees; etc.]; some of but *one*... some of *two*... and so on.” He (p. 58-59) further indicated, “Serious ethnographic work shows that there is one general, or universal, dimension to be postulated, that of participant.” However, to generalize the participants of a given linguistic landscape is still a challenging and problematic work. For example, in their seminal paper, Landry and Bourhis (1997) adopted Leclerc’s classification on private signs and government signs, which identified two major types of participants in the linguistic landscape. As they (1997, p. 26) stated:

Private signs include commercial signs on storefronts and business institutions (e.g., retail stores and banks), commercial advertising on billboards, and advertising signs displayed in public transport and on private vehicles. Government signs refer to public signs used by national, regional, or municipal governments in the following domains: road signs, place names, street names, and inscriptions on government buildings including ministries, hospitals, universities, town halls, school, metro station, and public parks.

Similarly, some other scholars recognized the top-down and bottom-up flows of elements of linguistic landscape (Ben-Rafael et al., 2006) or official and non-official division (Backhaus, 2007). These classifications are all based on the awareness of showing the source, or the displayer of a sign as one participant, and the receiver of the message on the sign as the other participant, either “official vs. non-official”, or “top vs. down”.

However, the seemingly clear division hides the complex facts from us in many cases. As Landry and Bourhis (1997) mentioned,

It is through its language policy for government signs that the state can exert its most systematic impact on the linguistic landscape of the territory under its jurisdiction. In contrast, the state may exert less control over the language of private signs. This is the case because both the content and the language of private signs are often seen by the courts as being part of an individual’s freedom of speech, whereas government signs are rarely considered as a constituent part of individual freedom of expression (pp. 26-27).

This notion explains the actual complexity in the display of a variety of signs in different forms and designs that are often found in non-official signs. One example of “individual freedom” in the display of signs is from the pervasive influence of globalization that brought a trend to put foreign elements into linguistic landscape, especially, the wide use of English for shop names, and other foreign languages, pictures, and decorations on the show window. Thus, globalization’s actual power is more influential on language choice than the government in some cases, as indicated by Huebner (2009). As also shown at the beginning of this section, the policies at national, regional and municipal levels give tacit consent to the use of foreign languages, so in this sense, it made it difficult to analyze whether a sign indeed is official or not. Moreover, Huebner (2009) noted that the form and design of a sign varied greatly in a linguistic

landscape. For example, a monolingual (usually national language) nameplate on a state-owned company and a bilingual (usually national language and English) inscription on the wall of a foreign enterprise with a unique logo; a big foot billboard with large size characters and attracting pictures and a small handwritten notice that informs that a shop is “Closed” today. Therefore, the agency and how it affects the real formation of linguistic landscape become implicit if the signs are all simply grouped as government (official or top-down) or private (non-official or bottom-up) signs.

Given the current situation, it is a wise choice to restrict the research area and specify the participants in a given linguistic landscape. This study on campus provides a platform to identify and clarify the participants in this special site, which can also be applied to linguistic landscape of other places. From my point of view, three participants are involved in linguistic landscape: sign displayer, sign reader, and bystander. I will investigate the three parties in campus linguistic landscape respectively. First, speaking of the sign displayer or agent for a specific sign, it cannot be simply assumed that all the signs on campus got approval from the administrative manager of the university or of that city, except for some common nouns or proper nouns that have been widely spread. Thus the identity of sign displayer is complex, which could be understood from the different functional districts (context) identified in the previous section. The agent could be a shopkeeper who opens a bookshop and put a nameplate for his shop on campus, a waitress who displays today’s menu in the cafeteria, a professor who put a poster for a debate on the bulletin board, a statue builder who places the statue at the open plaza with inscriptions on his body and the like. All the people who are involved in the campus life and activities could be

possible agents of the campus linguistic landscape as long as their behavior is related to the formation of the linguistic landscape of campus.

Second, the sign reader or audience is the one who steps into the “context” and faces the “dialogue” started by the agent. “Each token in a LL embodies the characteristics that are perceived by the agent to be responsible for its presence as either reflective of or required of its audience” (Huebner, 2009, p. 74). For instance, a student goes into the cafeteria and looks at the menu displayed. At this moment the sign on the menu has both an agent and audience. In practice, anyone on campus is the intended audience, but the one who comes into the cafeteria and sees the sign becomes the real audience. After the order, the student gets her meal and leaves the cafeteria. Later, another student come into the cafeteria, gets her ordered meal and finds a seat to eat. Hanging from the table is a notice that reads, “Do not occupy an extra seat with your bag.” The intended and real audience becomes the second student who eats inside the cafeteria rather than the first who left. So as the “context” changes the “dialogue” confronts a changing audience. As Hymes (1972, p. 61) also indicated, “Sometimes rules for participants are internal to a genre and independent of the participants in the embedding event.” Among those who are in the setting of the cafeteria, the reminding notice exert real influence just on the ones with bags and realize its function, rather those who do not intend to take extra seat.

Third, the *bystander* is the flexible participant in the campus linguistic landscape. It has been mentioned that audience are those who responded to the sign displayer’s (agent’s) behavior. If the agent’s behavior is ignored or cannot exert power or influence on others, then “others” become the bystanders, because they are also active elements of the campus linguistic landscape.

Moreover, they are a potential audience at any time and any place on campus. For example, situating himself in the large linguistic landscape of campus, without looking at any signs on campus, a student is the bystander; once he steps into a “dialogue” started by the sign displayer, he becomes the real audience; further, the student himself can also become an agent by creating a sign by himself and displaying it on campus. Therefore, there is a role transformation among some participants.

The three types of participants interact together and influence the construction of the campus linguistic landscape. Huebner (2006) held that the form that language takes in the linguistic landscape was influenced in part by the agent’s perceptions of the intended audience. In the case of Ito Campus, four languages are adopted for the menu plate on the wall of the cafeteria, which demonstrates that the agent recognized the existence of overseas students, who impact the formation of the campus linguistic landscape. Similarly, some Japanese-only signs, especially some restricting or warning notices, either deliberately or unintentionally excludes the audience who cannot read or understand Japanese. The Japanese-English bilingual signs limit accessibility of the information to some students who can read Japanese or English, while they seem to be an “ideal” way to cater for all the people on campus, as most of the students, staff or visitors can read (some) Japanese, and for those who cannot read Japanese (especially overseas students and foreign visitors), English translation can help, although there are difference in their English competence. However, it is impossible and impractical to put all the languages on the signboards, so the use of English becomes a solution to satisfy the need of the minority groups on campus. In the case of Ito Campus, Japanese-English bilingual

signs constitute the largest proportion of its linguistic landscape, which to some extent shows more concern to the overseas students as participants. Although the identification of participants on campus linguistic landscape still can not show the general features of campus signs, the role of the participants are specified in the given multilingual campus. The examination of the participants finds out that authorship is a complex issue, and anyone is the potential reader, although many simply remain bystanders.

4.6 Ends: Functions of Campus Signs

Hymes sees “Ends” as the “outcome” of speech acts and the “purpose” of an event (1972, pp. 61-62). This component leads us to think about the functions of signs in order to evaluate the quality of communication, and to what degree the goal of displaying such a sign is achieved. Some functions of signs have been discussed in previous studies. Bourhis (as cited in Landry and Bourhis, 1997, pp. 25-29) indicated the “informational” functions and the “symbolic” functions of the linguistic landscape, “the most basic informational function of the linguistic landscape is that it serves as a distinctive marker of the geographical territory inhabited by a given language community...the absence or presence of one’s own language on public signs has an effect on how one feels as a member of a language group within a bilingual or multilingual setting.” Their discussion on functions of linguistic landscape focuses on how the status and power of competing language groups are manifested through examining the use of the languages in the linguistic landscape. In their understanding, both of these two functions bear a “symbolic” connotation.

In addition, Lü (2005) illustrated four propositional functions of public signs: informing, reminding, restricting, and warning. Informing signs only provide information, thus they usually show the content of the sign briefly, but do not ask for the information receiver to take action. Reminding signs are used widely for the purpose of offering information or rules that might be ignored or forgotten by receivers. Restricting signs exert restrictions or constraints on the related public, and are expressed usually in a straightforward way, but they do not make the readers feel as if the signs are impolite, offensive or unreasonable. Warning signs, also called compelling signs, usually adopt a tough tone and require the reader to perform or not to perform some actions. These signs, which usually adopt imperatives, leave no room for compromise. Here are some examples:

Informing sign: Information; Travel Service; Baby Change; Car Rental.
Reminding sign: Reserved; Wet Paint; Sold Out; Minimum Charge.
Restricting sign: Handicapped Only; Free For Children Under 12.
Warning sign: No Minors Allowed; No Overnight Parking.
(Lü, 2005, pp. 22-23)

His analysis centers on the nature and characteristics of signs in the public sphere without putting them in a multilingual environment or discussing status issues like the role of dominant language and subordinate language in practice.

Huebner (2009) indicates that the two classifications at different levels are necessary in understanding the function of a given linguistic landscape. Lü's classification echoes the "referential" or "propositional" function of speech put forward by Hymes (1974, p. 146). This section will first present the functions of campus signs based on a revision of Lü's classification. After a close observation of the campus linguistic landscape, I found that the using of arrow or other signs (in the semiotic sense) is common. Besides, it is difficult to draw a line between

restricting signs and warning signs on campus, because many restricting signs appear with warning information. Therefore, I will modify Lü's classification into a new format to analyze the basic functions of campus signs, which are presented in the following tables (Table 4-4 and Table 4-5) together with a further division on the genres of campus signs.⁵ Based on those basic functions, I will analyze some extended functions of several unique genres. In addition, I will discuss how languages perform the symbolizing function in the multilingual campus.

⁵ Based on Lü's (2005) classification, I divide signs on campus as informing signs, directing signs, reminding signs, and warning signs. On campus, informing signs simply provide information without asking the readers to take action; directing signs usually include an arrow on the signboard for related information; reminding signs make the target readers aware of the important message to avoid potential risks, but do not ask the reader to take immediate action. Warning signs (by incorporating Lü's definition of restricting and warning signs) require the readers to take or not to take certain actions once they see the message for the purpose of keeping order or get rid of danger.

Table 4- 4: Functional Genres in Each Setting (Ito Campus: n=223)			
Area	Setting	Functional genre	Number
Inside	Cafeteria 29	Informing notice	21
		Directing notice	5
		Nameplate	2
		Map	1
	Library 29	Informing notice	19
		Warning notice	4
		Map	2
		Directing notice	1
		Advertisement	1
		Reminding notice	1
		Nameplate	1
	Gymnasium 34	Warning notice	14
Informing notice		10	
Map		3	
Nameplate		6	
Timetable		1	
Outside	Parking lot 28	Directing notice	14
		Informing notice	7
		Warning notice	7
	Bus station 23	Traffic notice	6
		Informing notice	4
		Bus timetable	4
		Reminding notice	3
		Warning notice	2
		Station name	3
		Area map	1
	Shop 9	Nameplate	5
		Informing notice	4
	Open Plaza 5	Informing notice	3
		Warning notice	1
Stone inscription		1	
Classroom building 29	Nameplate	23	
	Informing notice	3	
	Warning notice	1	
	Map	2	
Restaurant 6	Nameplate	3	
	Informing notice	3	

Table 4-4: Functional Genres in Each Setting (Continued)			
(Ito Campus: n=223)			
Area	Setting	Functional genre	Number
Outside	Others 31	Informing notice	4
		Advertisement	5
		Warning notice	7
		Reminding notice	4
		Statue Inscription	6
		Nameplate	1
		Traffic notice	2
		Directing notice	1
		Map	1

Table 4- 5: Functional Genres in Each Setting (BLCU Campus: n=198)				
Area	Setting	Functional genre	Number	
Inside	Cafeteria 20	Nameplate	2	
		Informing notice	8	
		Reminding notice	5	
		Advertisement	2	
		Poetics board	2	
		Menu	1	
	Library 13		Nameplate	1
			Informing notice	9
			Motto	2
			Advertisement	1
	Gymnasium/Playground 33		Informing notice	8
			Directing notice	2
			Reminding notice	7
			Warning notice	7
			Nameplate	6
			Advertisement	2
Banner			1	

Table 4-5: Functional Genres in Each Setting (Continued)
(BLCU Campus: n=198)

Area	Setting	Functional Genre	Number			
Outside	Parking lot 7	Informing notice	2			
		Reminding notice	3			
		Warning notice	2			
	Shop 31		Nameplate	15		
			Informing notice	10		
			Directing notice	3		
			Warning notice	1		
			Advertisement	2		
			Classroom building 14		Nameplate	12
					Banner	1
	Warning notice	1				
	Other buildings 15		Nameplate	13		
			Informing notice	1		
			Warning notice	1		
	Restaurant 14		Nameplate	2		
			Informing notice	4		
			Warning notice	3		
	Others 42		Advertisement	5		
			Informing notice	4		
			Directing notice	1		
			Reminding notice	4		
			Warning notice	9		
			Motto inscription	8		
			Advertisement	6		
			Bulletin board	4		
			Name inscription	2		
			Campus map	2		
Banner	2					

Among the functional districts of Ito Campus, it is found that the basic function of campus signs is informing, telling the participants where they are living and studying, when the library or shop will open, what dishes are served in the cafeteria or restaurant today and how they can get to the bus station. The second major function is keeping order by regulating behavior, actions, and

movements in the public realm by displaying reminding or warning signs. As the genres indicate, the notices themselves can serve four different basic functions: informing, directing, reminding, and warning. Moreover, other types of campus signs can go beyond those functions and achieve unique purposes. For example, maps are used as important visual assistance to offer concise information added to the layout of campuses. The advertisements on campus, like in cities, promote a product, service, or event. The nameplates attached to the classroom buildings, shops, and cafeterias identify them by linking their names with the physical objects. The memorial monuments and commemorative stones/plates standing in the open square record history and significant moments on campus and report it to the passers-by. Coulmas (2009, P. 23) examined several famous landmarks worldwide and noted, “LL is a cultural scene, formed by interested agents whose motivations and intentions pertaining to information contents, language choice and symbolic significant, to the extent they can be inferred, must be reckoned with in the analysis.” He further indicated, “Landmarks of a city are to be read, which was and is defining the feature of city life.” On both campuses, monumental inscriptions are found. The mottoes “Learning without thought means labor lost; thought without learning is perilous” (学而不思则罔, 思而不学则殆) from Confucius, and “Constant dripping wears away the stone” (锲而不舍, 金石可镂) from Xunzi, another great thinker of China, direct the readers to the spirit and attitude of study and doing research, which creates a special atmosphere for university campus.

Putting linguistic landscape in a “given” context, Landry and Bourhis recognized the “informational” and “symbolic” functions of signs. However, as

Shohamy, et al. (2010) criticized that their understandings arising from a “given” context of sociolinguistics ignored the dynamic features of the linguistic landscape. Deviating the signs from a fixed context, signs can show their ideational functions first, as Lü (2005) explained. The study of campus linguistic landscape is also a site to see and record changes brought by globalization and the functions born with them can be observed at the same time. The “informational” and “symbolic” functions put forward by Landry and Bourhis could be recognized as “selling” on campus, which exhibit the “Indexicality” of signs, because foreign languages often found in campus business symbolize something different and exotic, which can deliver culture and promote commodification. As Leeman and Modan (2010, p. 182) argued, “much language in the urban landscape is both an outcome of, and vehicle for, the commodification of space.” Their notion can also be adopted into the multilingual campus, as the diversity of language is found most in the shops or restaurants on campus. In addition, universities themselves can also be seen as a product that attracts students all over the world. Besides, equipping themselves with English signs and other foreign languages, universities are explaining to what extent they are internationalized, which also portrays campus as a “commodified space” in some sense.

4.7 Summary

This chapter, based on Hymes’ “Speaking Model”, explicates the linguistic landscape of campus in terms of the making of policies and regulations, the functions, participants, settings, and genres. First, the close examination of language policies at different levels with regard to language use on signs in both

countries account for the notion that there is a “silent consent” from the government for the adoption of the foreign languages into signs in the public domain. Although there is no clear statement or approval from the language laws in both countries, the local governments and social organizations, such as the translation association, have promoted the status of foreign languages in their practical use. Because of the desire to be internationalized, to develop the tourism industry, to strengthen intercultural communication, and to advertise them to the rest of world, both China government and Japan government first make a resolution to stress English language education, and provide English service where necessary, thus the English translation of signs first becomes an urgent task and project. In addition, considering the large number of foreign residents, both permanent and temporary, both countries decide that the display of their languages have become quite necessary. It can be observed that the provisional/prefectural and municipal governments have made much effort to regulate the foreign language use on signs. In Japan, big cities first try to make rules for the display of multilingual signs, which also stimulate the formation of guidance or plans made by the central government, such as the Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communication, Japan Tourism Agency, and so on. Those planning further push the implementation of standardization of some rules concerning language in signs. This also explains the booming of various sign manuals made at the local level. In China, big cities have begun to draw up guidelines for Chinese-English sign translation, from which more rules for foreign languages use can be expected. Therefore the status and importance of foreign languages are prompted significantly in practice.

A detailed genre description, based on the discussion of participants, functions of signs, and their settings, is made after the discussion on norms (policies and regulations). Huebner (2009, p. 84) pointed out “as linguistic landscape evolves, it will be necessary to provide a nuances examination of the linguistic forms that artifacts take, their relationships to the contexts in which they appear, and the motivations and reactions of those who are responsible for them or affected by them.” The identification of genres provides clues for those concerns. I make clear divisions of the settings of campus into functional districts, within which the different genres generate social meanings. Under the broader context of educational area, the campus differentiates itself from other places in the setting. Within different settings, genres characterize the functional districts. Altogether twelve genres are identified on campus: nameplate, notice, menu, map, layout, advertisement, timetable, statue inscription, banner, motto, slogan, and poetics. Detailed descriptions of each genre describe their functions and determine the overall tone of the campus linguistic landscape. The variety of authorship in the campus linguistic landscape is stated, with the notion that anyone on campus is a potential reader and oftentimes they play the role of bystander. The “Speaking Model” depicts a general but clear view of the campus linguistic landscape; without a personal visit, one can even imagine the campus landscape.

CHAPTER 5 SURVEY ON LANGUAGES USED IN THE CAMPUS LINGUISTIC LANDSCAPE AND STUDENTS' ATTITUDES

5.1 Introduction

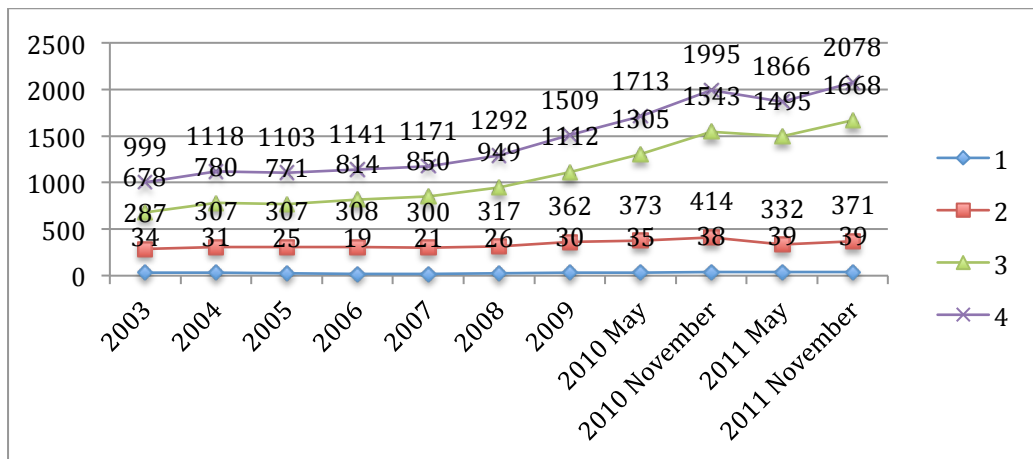
This chapter designs and analyzes two surveys conducted in both Kyushu University and Beijing Language and Culture University: a synchronic survey on the languages used in the linguistic landscapes of both campuses, and a survey of the student attitudes towards the multilingual campus. As I explicated in Section 1.4, those two surveys try to explore “spatial practice” and “lived space” respectively, which demonstrate the language distribution on the signboard and sign readers’ attitudes towards the linguistic landscape where they are living. Spolsky (2004, p. 222) noted, “...The real language policy of a community is more likely to be found in its practices than in management.” Based on the sign pictures collected from both campuses, the languages used on signs are categorized into the unilingual, bilingual and multilingual groups, which depict the characteristics of language use on campus. Moreover, the students’ attitudes towards the current situation of language use on campus are examined by the questionnaire survey which measures the students’ perception of language usage on campus, their preference of language choice and order on campus signboards, and their opinions about the importance of languages used on campus. The survey results from both campuses are reported along with graphs.

5.2 A New Look at Linguistic Landscape: A Case Study on Signs of Ito Campus

As it has been claimed that most previous studies focus on signs in cities, this survey on the linguistic landscape of campus is a new attempt to expand and enrich the scope and view of linguistic landscape. In a sense, the campus

linguistic landscape composes a part of the larger linguistic landscape of its city. Kyushu University, founded in 1903 as Fukuoka Medical College and renamed Kyushu University in 1911, now has developed into a leading university of Japan (Homepage of Kyushu University). It is a comprehensive university located in Fukuoka City, which is known as a “gateway” to Asia. Kyushu University has five campuses, the newest of which is Ito Campus, which is located on the far western edge of the city. Ito campus opened in 2009, and the university continued to expand the campus, moving apartments and facilities to Ito from the older campuses each year. The Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) chose Kyushu University as one of its thirteen “Global 30” project universities in 2009, to help realize the national goal of “increasing the number of international students up to 300,000” (Factbook of Kyushu University). Figure 5-1 shows that there was a noticeable increase in the number of international students in 2009 at Kyushu University, and the numbers have continued to rise in the following two years, except for temporary decline in May 2011 after the Tohoku earthquake and tsunami. By November 2011, the total number of international students has risen up to 2078, which constitutes 11% of the students in Kyushu University (see Figure 5-2). The great increase of international students facilitates the goal of “Campus Globalization”, which also affects the campus linguistic landscape considerably.

Figure 5- 1: Change in No. of International Students at Kyushu University

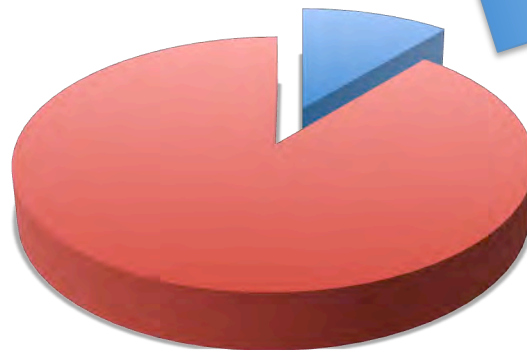


- 1. International Students Sent by Foreign Governments**
- 2. National-expense International Students**
- 3. Private-expense International Students**
- 4. Total No. of International Students**

(Kyushu University Factbook)

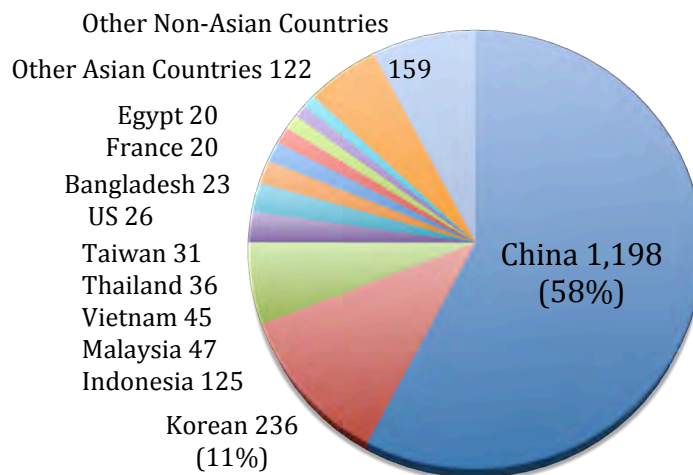
**Figure 5- 2: No. of International Students at Kyushu University
(As of November 1, 2011)**

Total No. Of Internatioinal Students
2,078 (11%)



Total No. of Students at University 19,705

Students Gather from 83 different countries and regions



Total No. of International Students: 2, 078

(Cited from Kyushu University Fact Book)

The current study is based on signs collected on the Ito Campus of Kyushu University from January to March 2012. The campus map below shows the walking tour of Ito Campus done for this study. The survey areas are the main streets of Ito Campus (the lines shown on the campus map). All of the signs are photographed, totaling 223 pictures. The present section attempts to describe how the campus linguistic landscape is shown to the public, teachers and students who teach or study there, or visitors who travel to or attend meetings in Kyushu University, and so on. Thus samples gathered here are signs placed outside of buildings, as well as those inside the library, cafeteria, and gymnasium, which are regarded as public gathering places. Table 5-1 summarizes the findings of this survey.

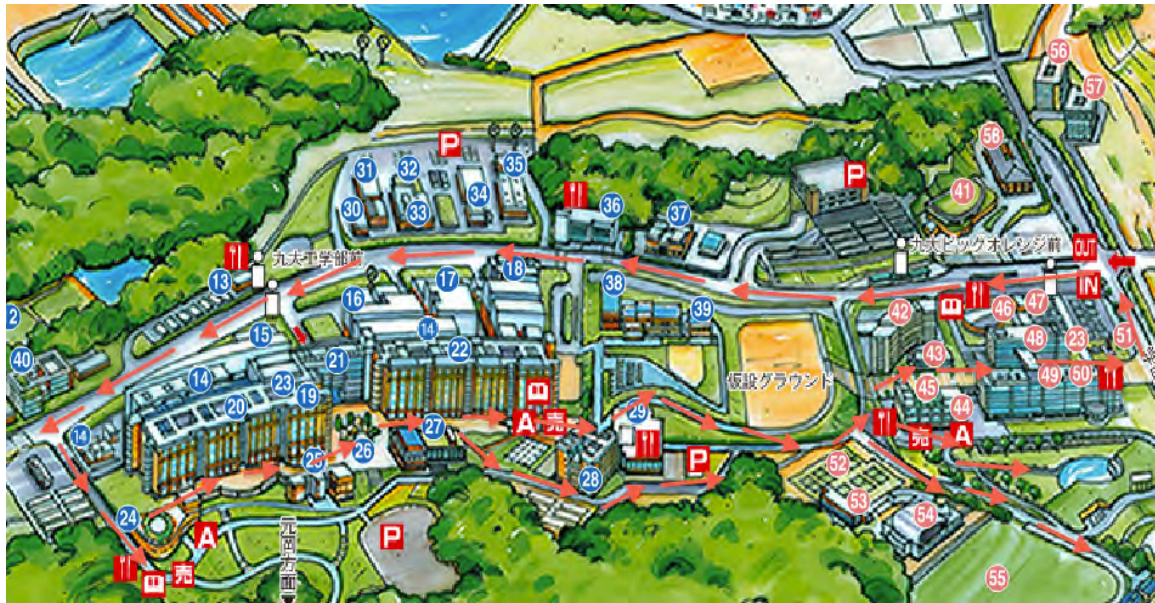


Figure 5- 3: Map of Ito Campus (from the homepage of Kyushu University)

Table 5- 1: Languages in Signs on Ito Campus of Kyushu University (n=223)			
Languages		Number	Percentage
Unilingual 117 (52.4%)	Japanese-only	99	44.30%
	English-only	17	7.60%
	French-only	1	0.40%
Bilingual 104 (46.6%)	Japanese + English	103	46.10%
	Japanese + Chinese	1	0.40%
Multilingual 2 (0.9%)	Chinese+Japanese+English	1	0.40%
	Jap + Eng + Chi + Korean	1	0.40%

First, looking at unilingual signs, Japanese is the dominant language, while English also frequently appears, as well as a single example of French, most Japanese-only signs are used in notices, for example parking rules displayed in the parking lots, do's and don'ts in the gymnasium or cafeteria, and cautions on campus. Bookshops, restaurants and convenience stores tend to be named using English only, and the single French sign was the name for a coffee in the cafeteria. These foreign language store names appear to aim to create an exotic atmosphere on campus.

Second, the Japanese-English bilingual signs constitute the largest language category of the campus linguistic landscape. In the bus stops, intersections of roads, on the walls of some buildings, and on windows of shops, Japanese-English signs are more preferred. Besides, some doorplates in both Japanese and English are also quite noticeable, for example, “Cellular Phone Booth”, “Women’s locker room” and “Gymnasium”.

Third, the foreign languages used in the multilingual signs found on campus are English, Chinese, and Korean, which are also commonly seen elsewhere in Japan, for example in the subway, tourist places. As I mentioned in Section 4.2.2, the Japanese government is implementing the plan for “Multicultural Coexistence”, providing multilingual help and service for the large number of foreign residents is an urgent task. Based the number of the minority groups, Chinese and Korean were selected as the two most necessary languages. It is the same on Kyushu University campus, 58% of the overseas students are China, 11% from Korea, who compose the majority of the overseas students, and so it is not unusual to find signs in Chinese and Korean.

To conclude, the campus does not show as rich a construction of linguistic landscape as the urban areas, but instead, it demonstrates its own traits, as it is indicated in the large amount of bilingual Japanese-English signs. The Internationalization trend is also embodied in these signs. Since the survey area is restricted to the main streets on Ito Campus of Kyushu University, the study provides a general look at the signs exhibited to the on-campus public.

5.3 A Probe into Campus Signs of “Little United Nations”

Founded in 1962, Beijing Language and Culture University is managed directly under the Ministry of Education of China. It is a multidisciplinary university featuring language teaching and research, especially in promoting Chinese language and Chinese culture all over the world. Known as “Little United Nations”, BLCU has been an important base for studying language and culture, has contributed significantly in strengthening international communion, and has informed the outside world about China and its culture and customs. According to its homepage, Beijing Language and Culture University has trained about 150,000 foreign students specializing in Chinese language and Chinese culture. Those students have come from 176 countries and regions. Moreover, more disciplines, such as economics, law, and engineering has been added to the education program since 1990. There are 14 institutions in BLCU along with several research centers, like the TCFL Center, (Teaching Chinese as Foreign Language in China). BLCU is the only “Key University” in China to have TCFL center. BLCU has established close and frequent cooperation with over 280 universities and academic institutions in 50 countries and regions worldwide. The university also established joint teaching centers in Singapore, Japan, Hong Kong, and Macao (Homepage of BLCU).

As a multi-lingual and multi-ethnic community, BLCU Campus is a starting point to know multilingualism in China. This case study is a synchronic investigation into the signs of BLCU Campus. The investigation on campus signs of BLCU is also a pioneer research of the linguistic landscape in China, focusing on how languages are used on campus. As a matter of fact, it is still unusual to see many multilingual signs in China. According to the author’s survey on the

language usage on campuses in Beijing, BLCU Campus is representative of the display of multilingual signs on campus. The author paid visits to 12 universities in Beijing: Peking University, Tsinghua University, Beijing Forestry University, Beijing Normal University, China University of Geosciences, Beijing Institute of Technology, Beijing Sport University, China Agriculture University, Beijing Foreign Studies University, China Youth University for Political Science, and Minzu University of China. I found that Minzu University of China was the only Beijing campus to use multilingual signs. Otherwise, even in the most famous national universities, like Peking University and Tsinghua University, it is uncommon to see multilingual signs. For this survey on BLCU campus, all the signs are photographed and stored for further analysis. For data collection, as with Kyushu University, all outside signs are considered, as well as the signs inside of the library, cafeteria and gymnasium as they are public spaces for the students' activities.

Table 5- 2: Languages Used in Signs of BLCU Campus (n=189)			
Languages		Number	Percentage
Unilingual 96 (51%)	Chinese-only	95	50%
	English-only	1	1%
Bilingual 76 (40%)	Chinese + English	72	38%
	Chinese + French	1	1%
	Chinese + Korean	2	1%
	English + Japanese	1	1%
Multilingual 17 (9%)	Chinese + English + Korean	8	4%
	Chinese + English + Japanese	3	2%
	Chinese + English + Indonesian	1	1%
	Chinese + English + Japanese + Korean	5	3%

In total, 189 signs are collected from BLCU Campus. Similar to the study on Ito Campus of Kyushu University, they are also divided into three groups:

Unilingual, Bilingual and Multilingual. The distribution is similar to the results of Ito Campus. It is found that the unilingual signs compose the largest groups (96), among which 95 are Chinese-only signs, the largest sub-group, and one English-only sign. Bilingual signs (40%) are the second largest sub-group, where the Chinese-English signs compose the majority of this group. However, on Ito Campus, the number of Japanese-English bilingual signs exceeds the Japanese-only signs.

It is noteworthy that the number of multilingual signs on BLCU Campus is greater than that of Ito Campus, despite smaller total number of signs on BLCU campus. One possible reason is more restaurants and shops tend to use more languages on BLCU Campus, but on Ito Campus, there are not as many restaurants, and perhaps the owners hold the opinion that bilingual Japanese signs are enough. The commonly used languages on BLCU multilingual signs are also Chinese, English, Korean, and Japanese, but in different combinations. The trilingual Chinese-English-Korean signs constitute the majority of the multilingual group. Also, those four common languages are found put together in five signboards on BLCU Campus, an example of which is shown in Figure 5-4.



Figure 5- 4: Multilingual Signboard on BLCU Campus

5.4 Students' Attitudes towards the Languages Used in the Campus Signs

This section investigates the students' attitudes towards the languages used in the campus signs of Kyushu University of Japan and Beijing Language and Culture University of China by using questionnaire survey. This survey, using convenience and purposeful sampling, comprised of 70 students (35 Japanese students and 35 overseas students) from Kyushu University, and 67 students (32 Chinese students and 35 overseas students) from Beijing Language and Culture University, was done in December 2012.

In both campuses, the participants are divided into native students and overseas students, so the final result is based on two groups in each university, and the similarities and differences between these two groups and two campuses will be analyzed in the next chapter. The questionnaire contained two sections (see Appendices I-IV). Section A asks for some basic information about the participants, for example, their departments and their foreign language competence; Section B asks the participants' perceptions of the languages used on campus signs, their willingness to add foreign languages into the signboards on campus and how they would order them on a signboard, and their opinions on the importance of foreign languages on campus signs. The results from Ito Campus and BLCU Campus will be given in pairs (Figure 5-5 to Figure 5-36); further, the interview survey in Chapter Six will provide more information in order to further understand the students' attitudes in the interpretation chapter.

5.4.1 Students' Perceptions about the Use of Language on Campus

The first question of the questionnaire asks how the students perceive the language use in campus signs. Figure 5-5 and Figure 5-6 report the result of students' perceptions about the most often used languages on campuses in both China and Japan. Compared with the author's findings of the construction of the linguistic landscapes of both campuses (see table 5-1 and table 5-2), these charts indicate some differences. Based on the impression of the students of Ito Campus, up to 71% students think that Japanese-only signs are used most often; in BLCU Campus, only 33% of students believe Chinese is used most often. Moreover, more students (60%) in BLCU Campus believe that bilingual signs (Chinese-English) have been used on campus signs, compared with students (19%) on Ito Campus. In fact, on Ito Campus, Japanese-English bilingual signs are comparable to Japanese-only signs. Contrary to the students' impression, the number of Chinese-only signs is larger on BLCU Campus.

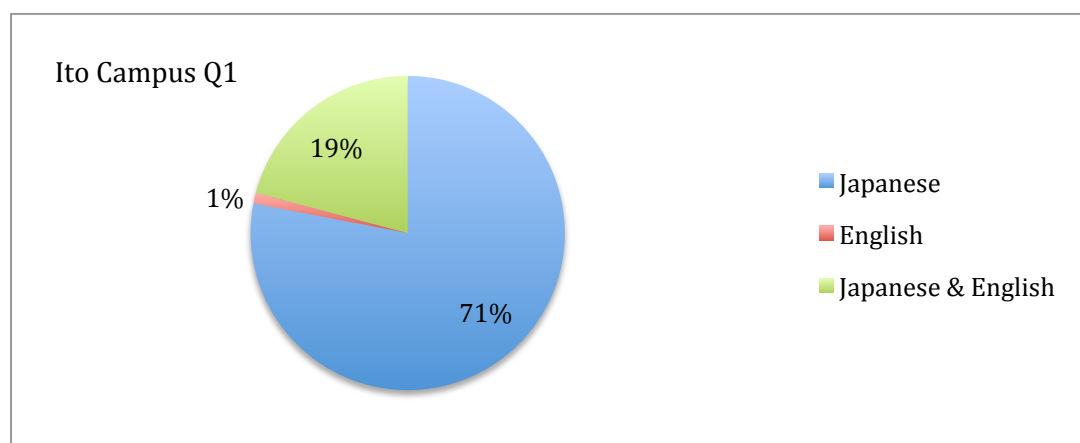


Figure 5- 5: Students' Perceptions of Language(s) used most often on Ito Campus

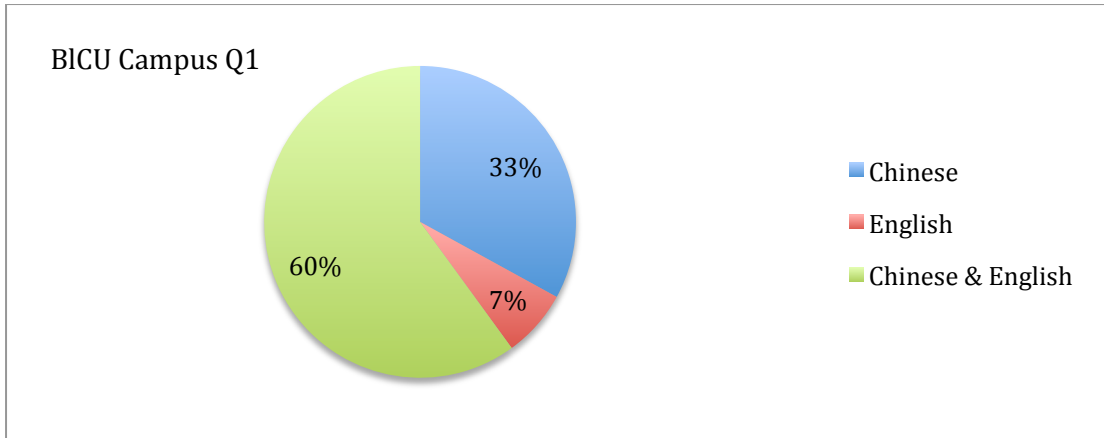


Figure 5- 6: Students' Perceptions of Language(s) used most often on BLCU Campus

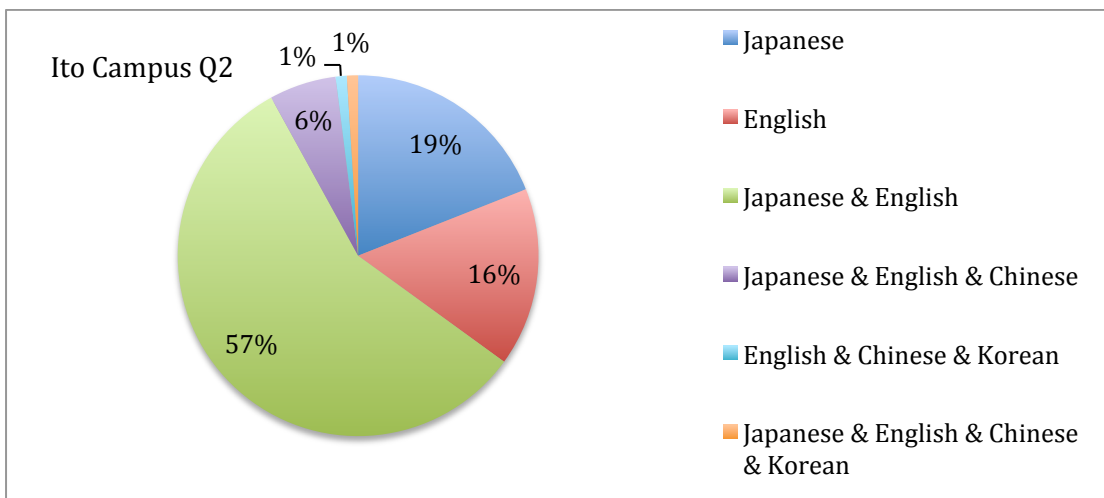


Figure 5- 7: Important Language(s) for Students' Study on Ito Campus

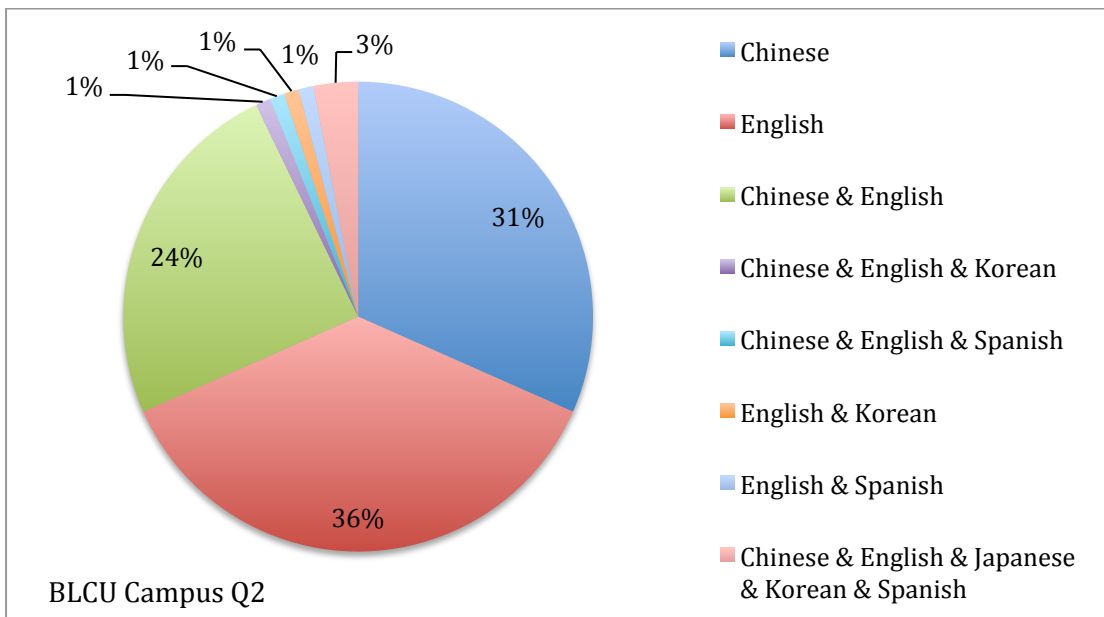


Figure 5- 8: Important Language(s) for Students' Study on BLCU Campus

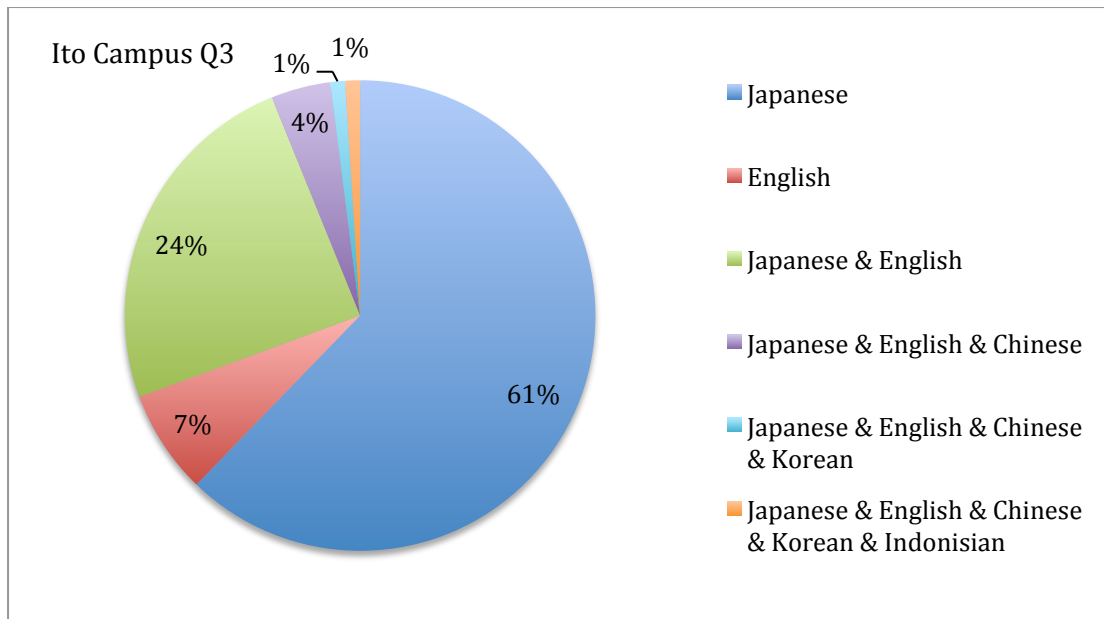


Figure 5- 9: Important Language(s) for Students' Daily Life on Ito Campus

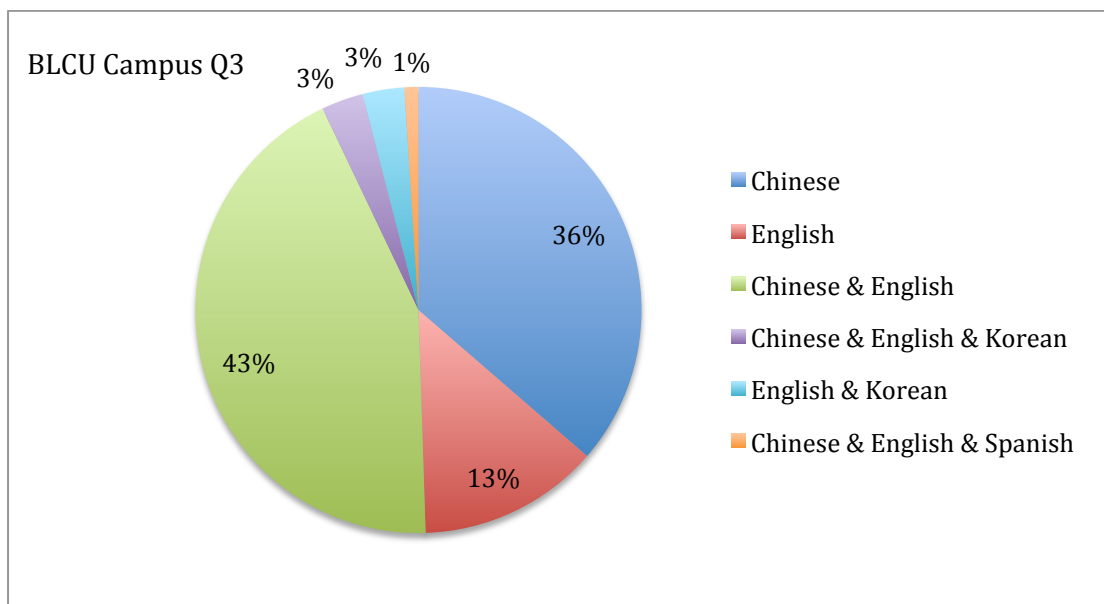


Figure 5- 10: Important Language(s) for Students' Daily Life on BLCU Campus

Figures 5-7 to Figure 5-10 show students' opinions on the important languages for their study and daily lives on campus. The two questions (Q2 and Q3) ask for the students' general evaluation of different languages, because this survey considers that the students connect their lives, either study or living, with their attitudes towards multilingual campus closely. For in-class study, more

students on Ito Campus hold that bilingual ability is required (57%), and students in BLCU Campus hold that either native language or English is helpful (31%; 36%). For daily life, 61% of the students in Japan emphasize the importance of Japanese, while the students in China have more interest in bilingual ability. In addition, in both campuses, five languages are deemed to be relevant to their daily life and study.

5.4.2 Choices on and Order of the Languages Used on the Signboards of Campus

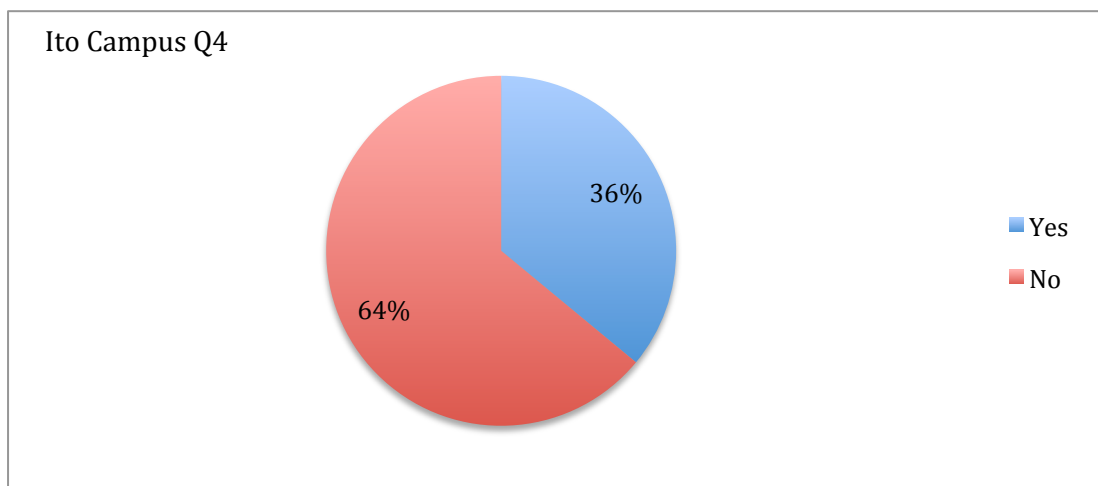


Figure 5- 11: Willingness to Add Non-English Foreign Language(s) on Ito Campus

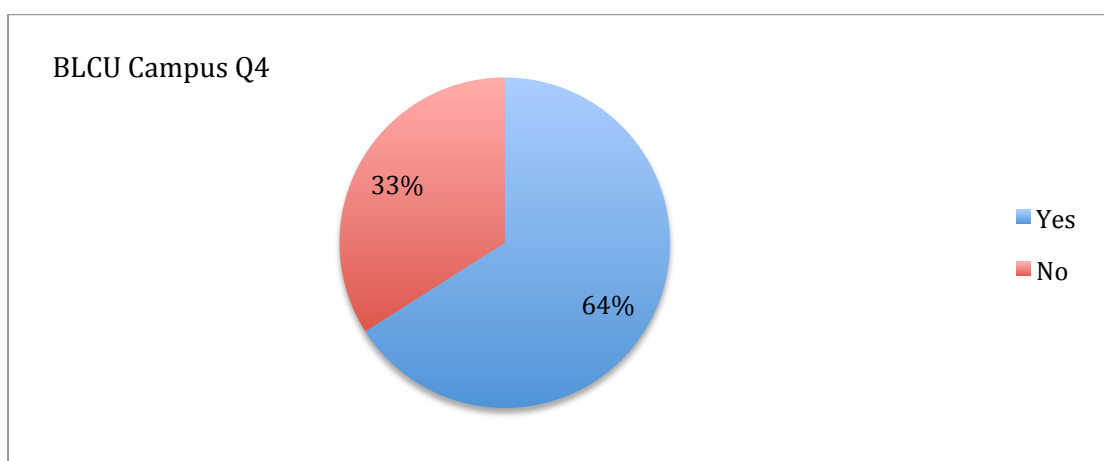


Figure 5- 12: Willingness to Add Non-English Foreign Language(s) on BLCU Campus

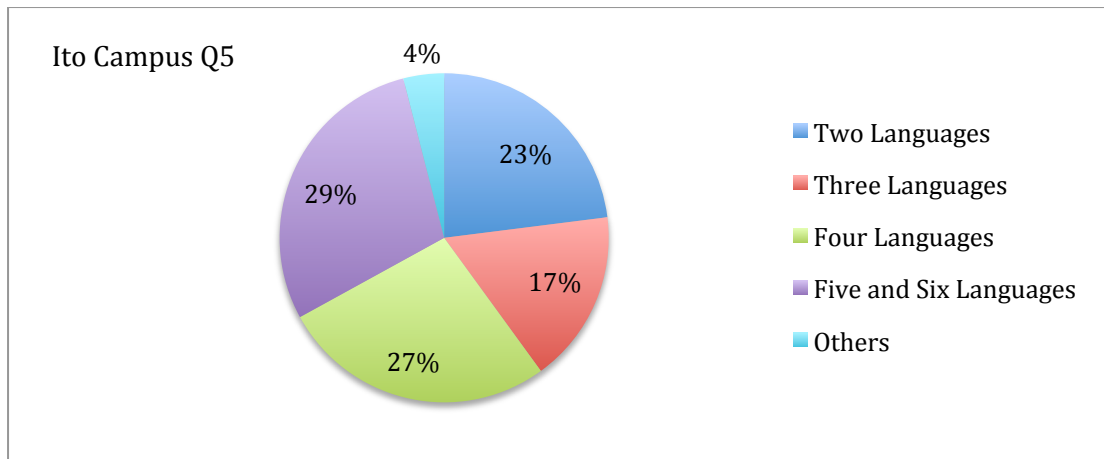


Figure 5- 13: Number of the Language(s) Chosen for Ito Campus

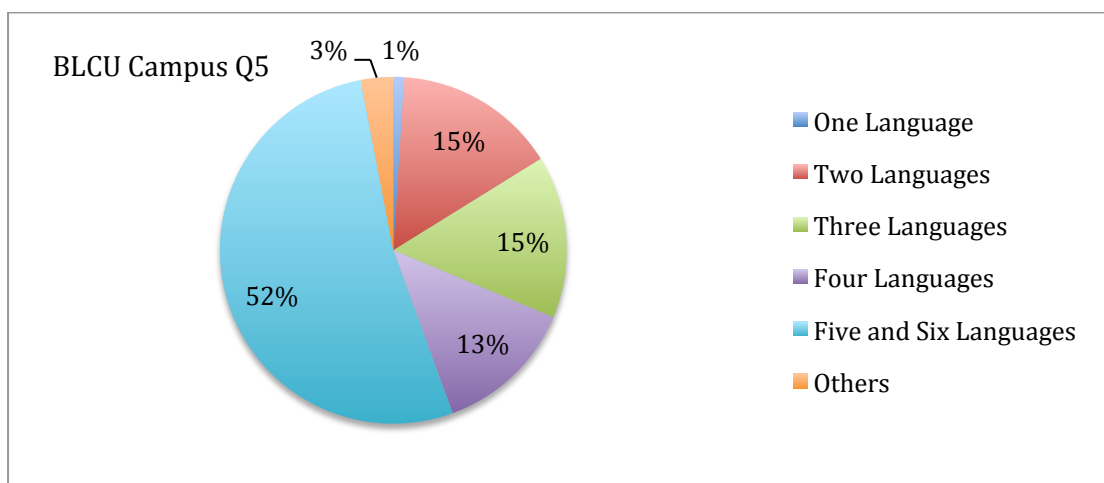


Figure 5- 14: Number of the Language(s) Chosen for BLCU Campus

Figures from 5-11 to 5-14 refer to questions asking students about their willingness to include more exotic foreign languages on campus signs. In Japan, more than one third of the students want to adopt foreign languages besides English, Chinese, and Korean on to the signboards of Ito campus, among them, 15 (21%) are native Japanese students, and 10(14%) are overseas students, and 29% of the students choose five or six foreign languages for campus signs. In China, the students are much more willing to add exotic foreign languages, up to 64%, among them, 19(28%) are native Chinese Students and 24(36%) are overseas students, and 52% of the students choose including five or six foreign languages for campus signs.

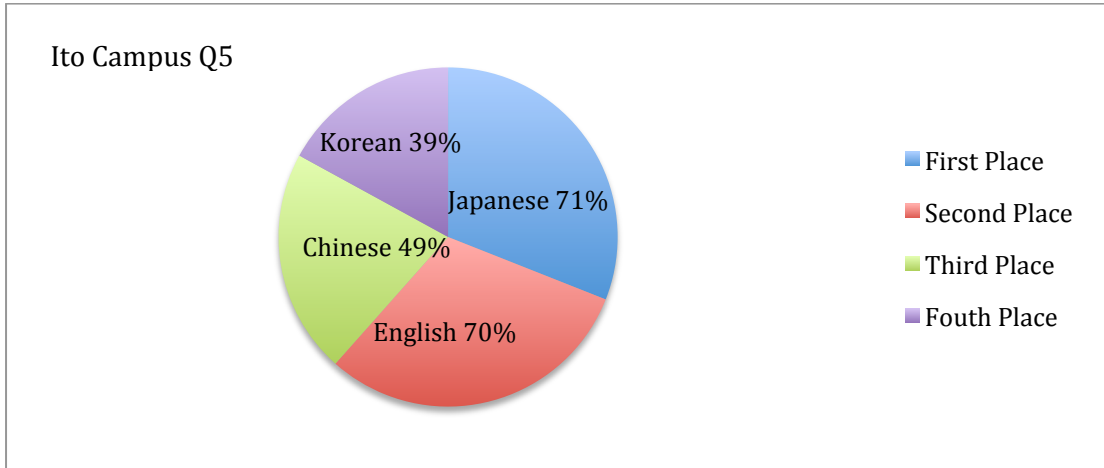


Figure 5- 15: Order of the First Four Languages Selected

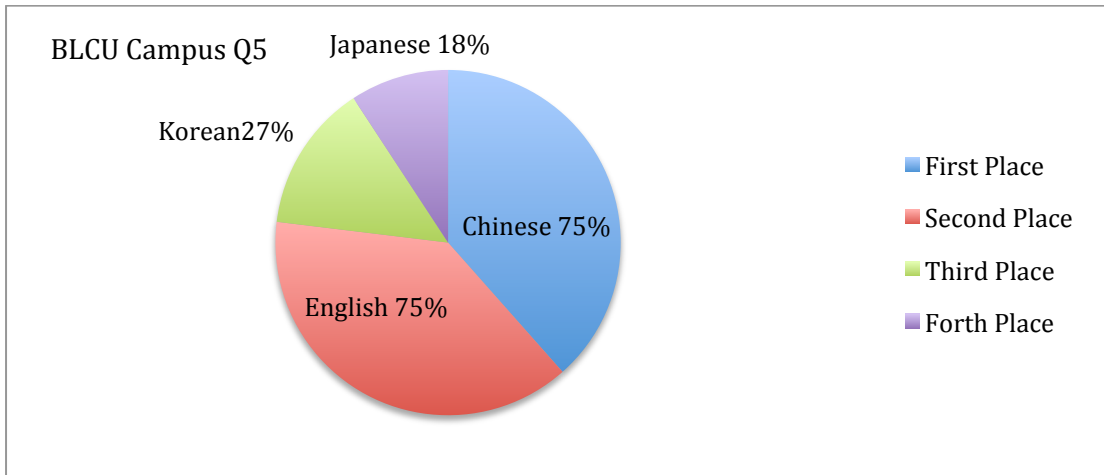


Figure 5- 16: Order of the First Four Languages Selected

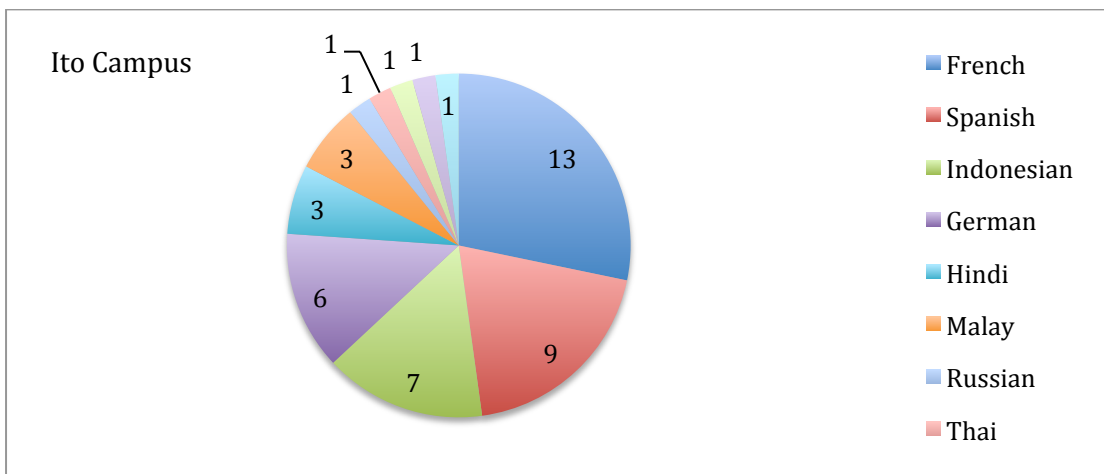


Figure 5- 17: Other Foreign Languages Selected for Campus Signs

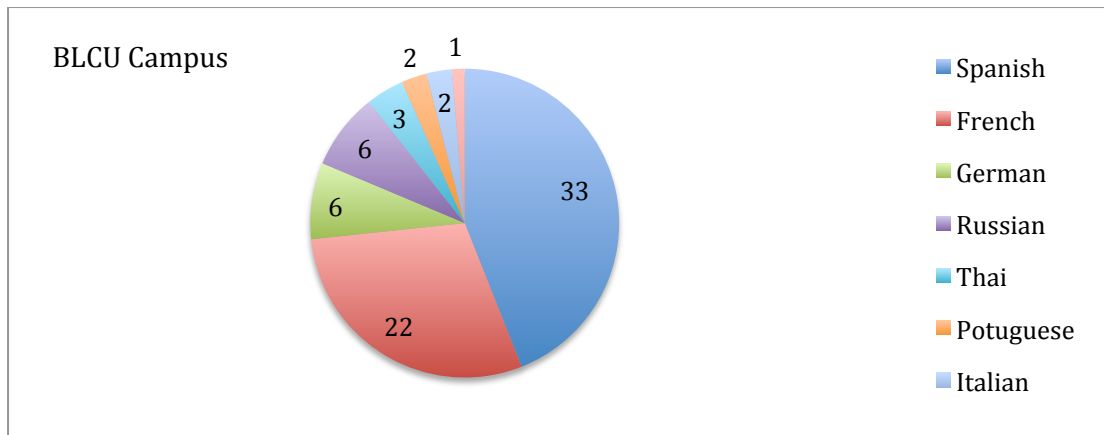


Figure 5- 18: Other Foreign Languages Selected for Campus Signs

Question 5 also asks the students how they order the languages they choose for campus signs. As I expected, the first four languages chosen by the students on both campuses is in conformity with the language usage in reality, in other words, as summarized previously, on Ito Campus, the commonly used languages are Japanese, English, Chinese, and Korean, and on BLCU Campus, it is the same, except for a difference in order. On Ito Campus, 71% students choose Japanese for the first place and 19% students chose English. On BLCU campus, 75% students put Chinese for the first place and 18% students select English. Besides, Ito Campus students choose 8 more foreign languages to use, and BLCU students choose 7 more foreign languages to display on campus. Among them, French and Spanish take the first two places.

5.4.3 Students' Opinions on the Importance of Language(s) Used on Campus

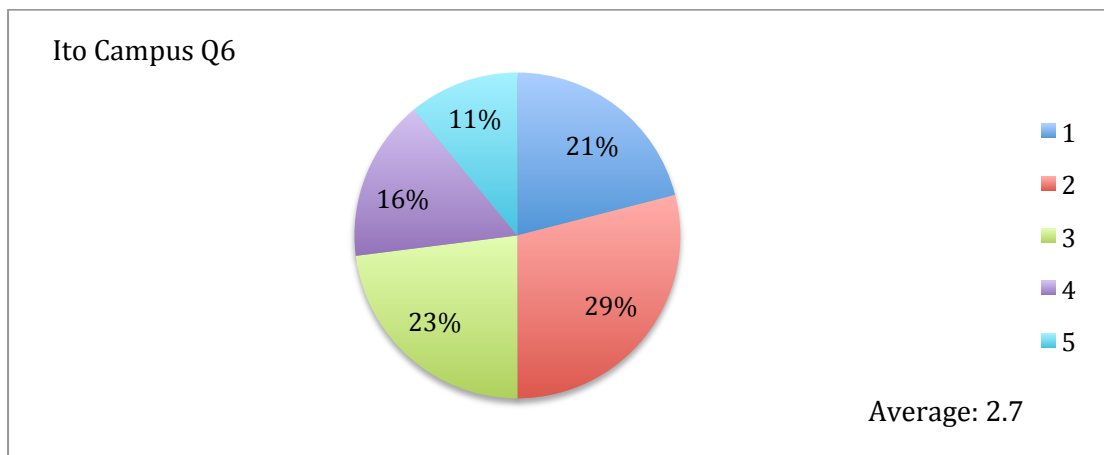


Figure 5- 19: The Attractive Power of Foreign Languages on Ito Campus

(1: Very important, 5: Not important at all)

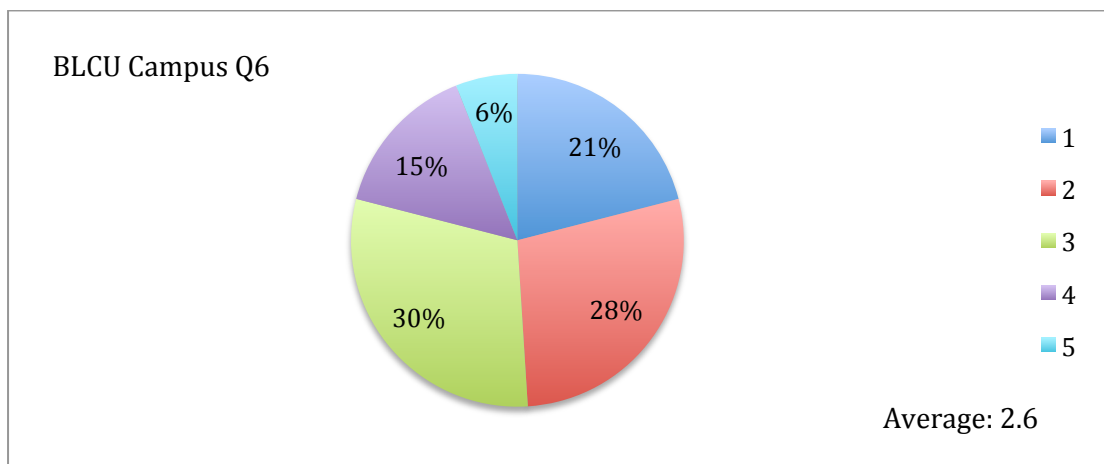


Figure 5- 20: The Attractive Power of Foreign Languages on BLCU Campus

(1: Very important, 5: Not important at all)

From Question 6 on, the participants are asked to describe their opinions more concretely, evaluating the degree of the importance of the languages used on campus signs. First, the attractive power of the foreign languages on campus is investigated; second the students' attitudes towards each foreign language; and third, their general impression of the multilingual environment. "1" represented a strong degree of attractive power, while "5" represented a weak degree of power. As shown in Figure 19 and Figure 20, the multilingual signs

attracted the attention of students when they first came to campus to about the same degree.

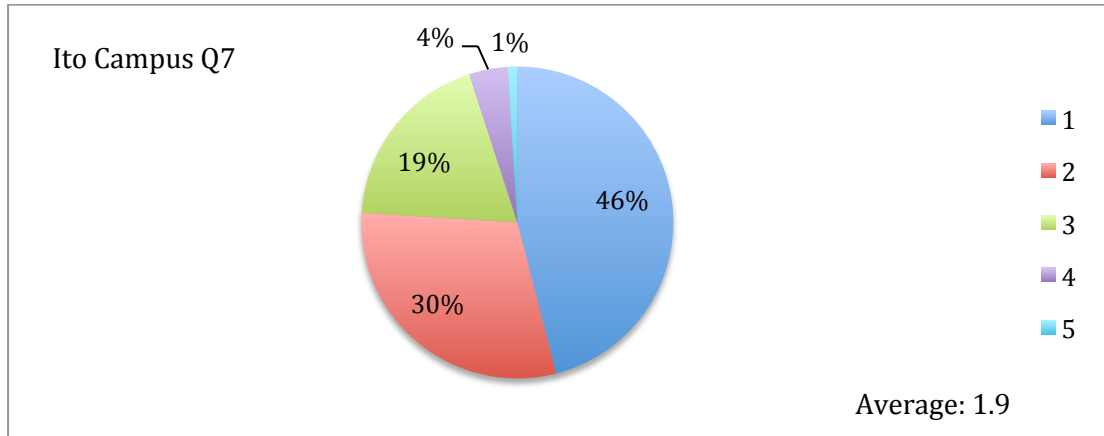


Figure 5- 21: The Importance of Putting Japanese on the Top

(1: Very important, 5: Not important at all)

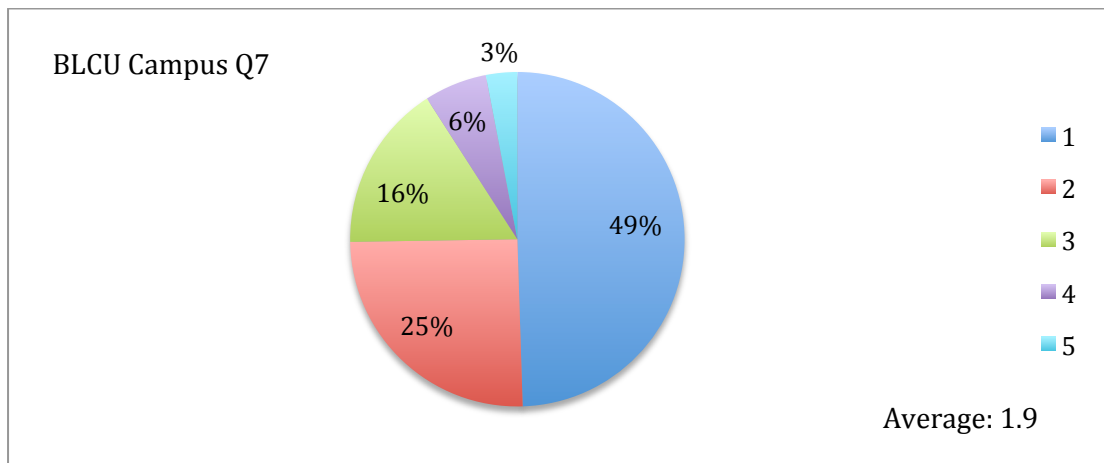


Figure 5- 22: The Importance of Putting Chinese on the Top

(1: Very important, 5: Not important at all)

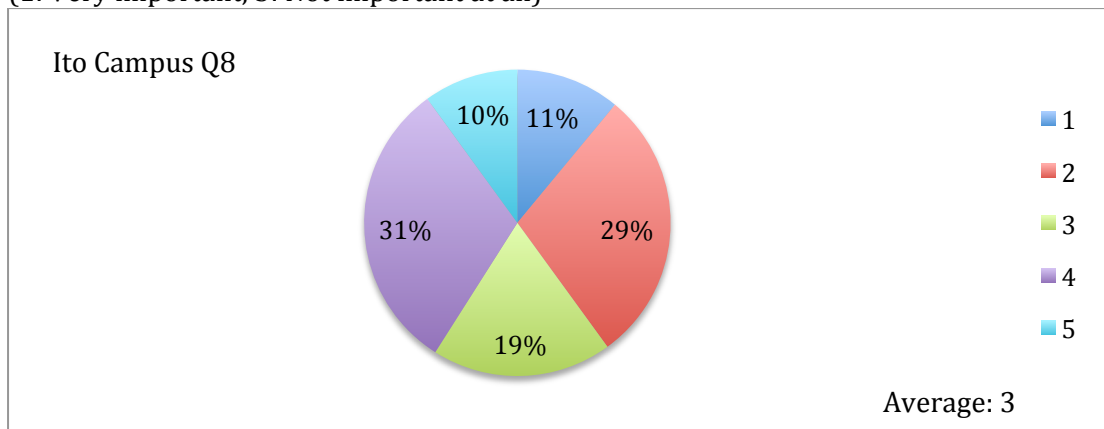


Figure 5- 23: The Relevance of Using Foreign Languages

(1: Very much, 5: Not at all)

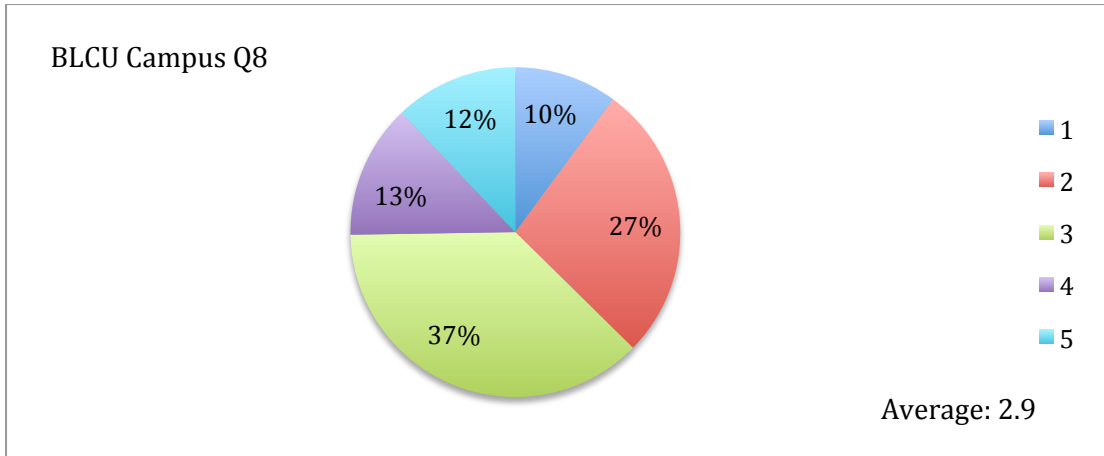


Figure 5- 24: The Relevance of Using Foreign Languages

(1: Very much, 5: Not at all)

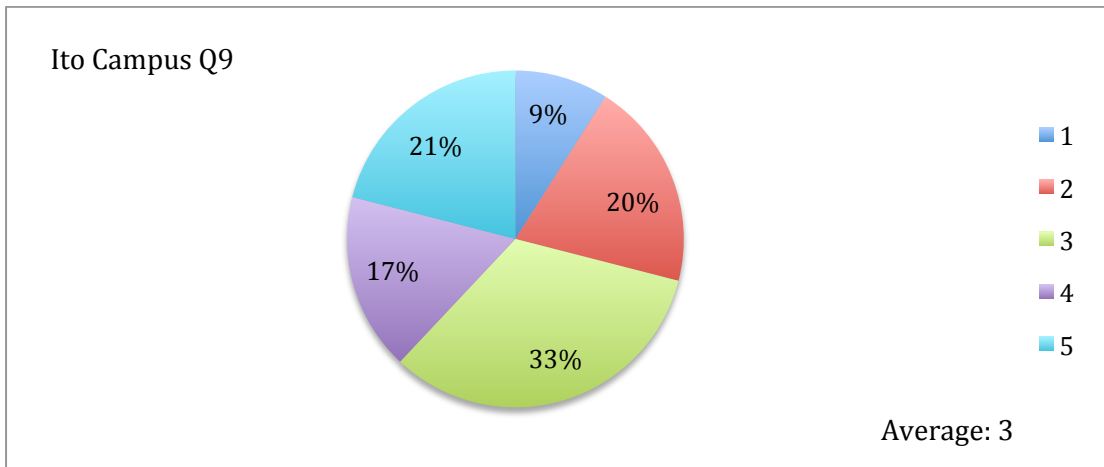


Figure 5- 25: Alienation Caused by Using Foreign Languages

(1: Very much, 5: Not at all)

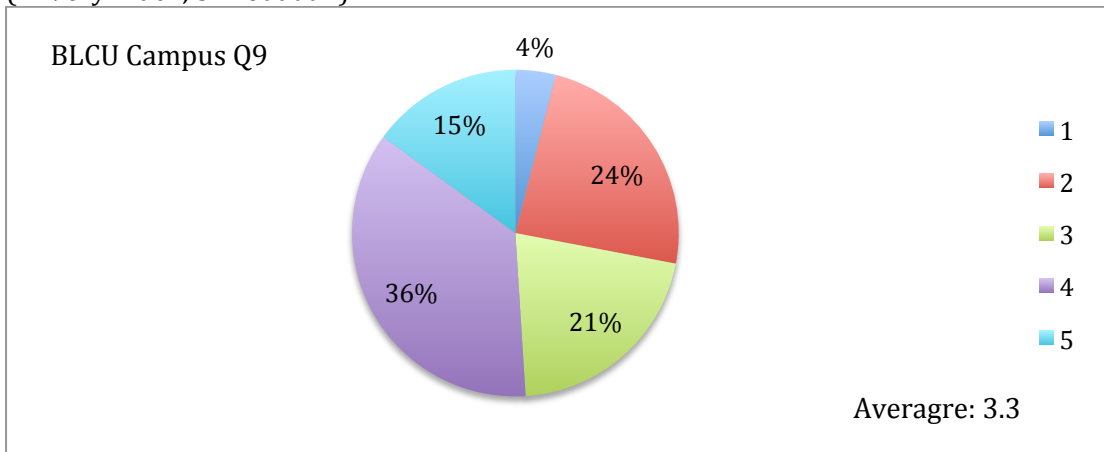


Figure 5- 26: Alienation Caused by Using Foreign Languages

(1: Very much, 5: Not at all)

Next, the students are asked to give their opinions on putting the native language on the top of the signboard. As shown in Figure 21 and Figure 22, in

both China and Japan, the top position of the native languages is highly valued (Average: 1.9). Then, the participants are asked to express their feelings about the relevance to them of displaying information in foreign languages on campus. The average numbers (Figure 23~Figure 26) indicates that in both campuses, their general attitudes are neutral, and to some extent, they accept the use of foreign languages without extreme alienation.

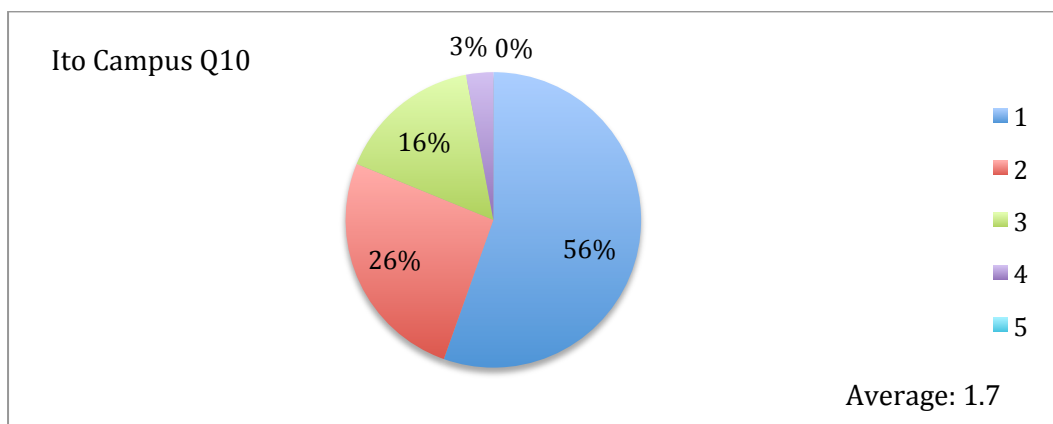


Figure 5- 27: Importance of Using English in Campus Signs

(1: Very important, 5: Not important at all)

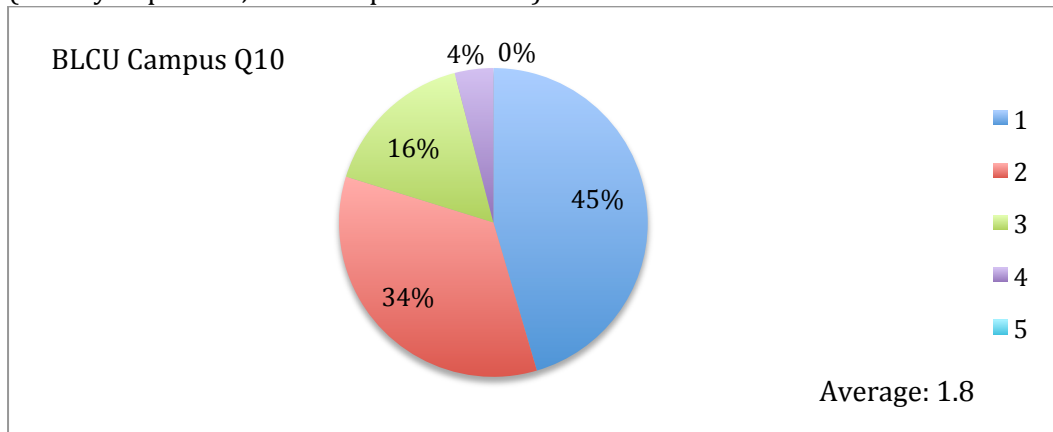


Figure 5- 28: Importance of Using English in Campus Signs

(1: Very important, 5: Not important at all)

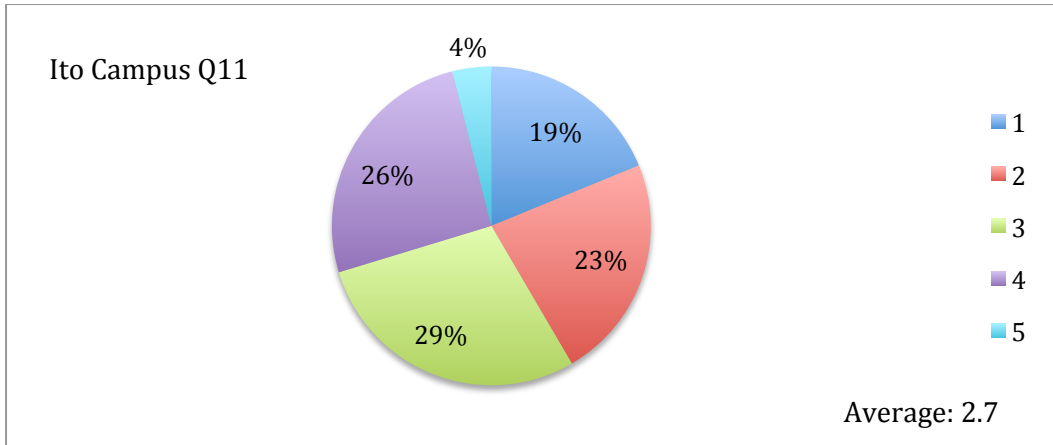


Figure 5- 29: Importance of Using Chinese in Campus Signs

(1: Very important, 5: Not important at all)

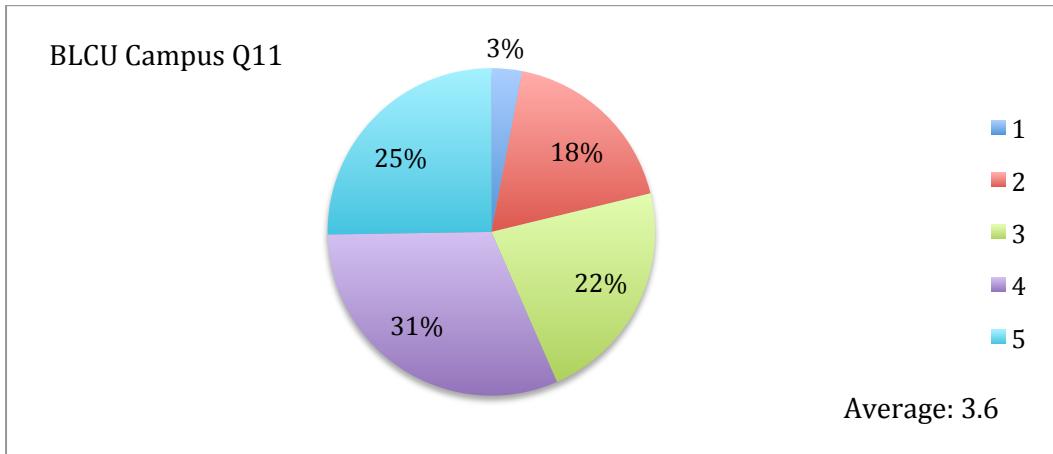


Figure 5- 30: Importance of Using Japanese in Campus Signs

(1: Very important, 5: Not important at all)

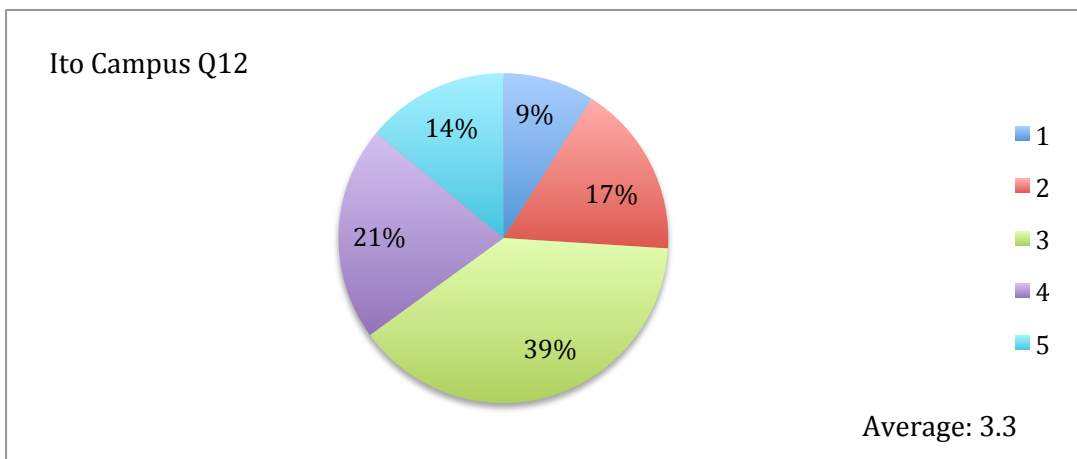


Figure 5- 31: Importance of Using Korean in Campus Signs

(1: Very important, 5: Not important at all)

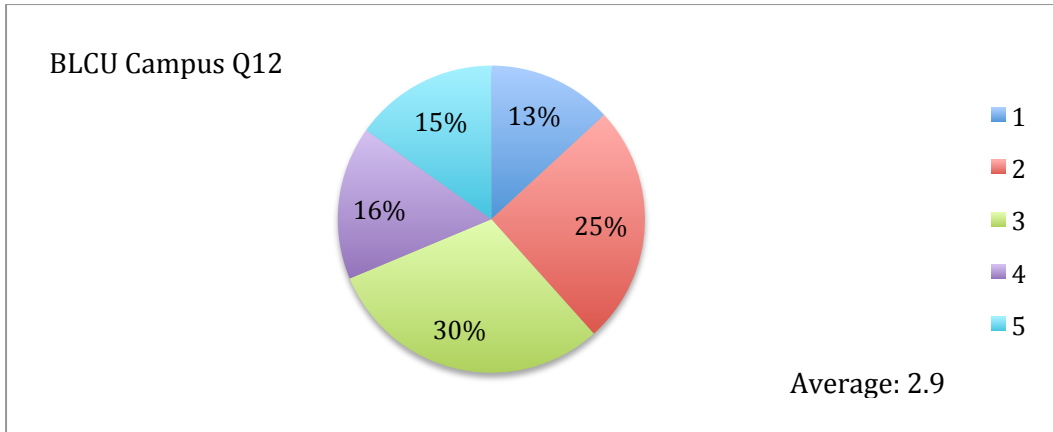


Figure 5- 32: Importance of Using Korean in Campus Signs

(1: Very important, 5: Not important at all)

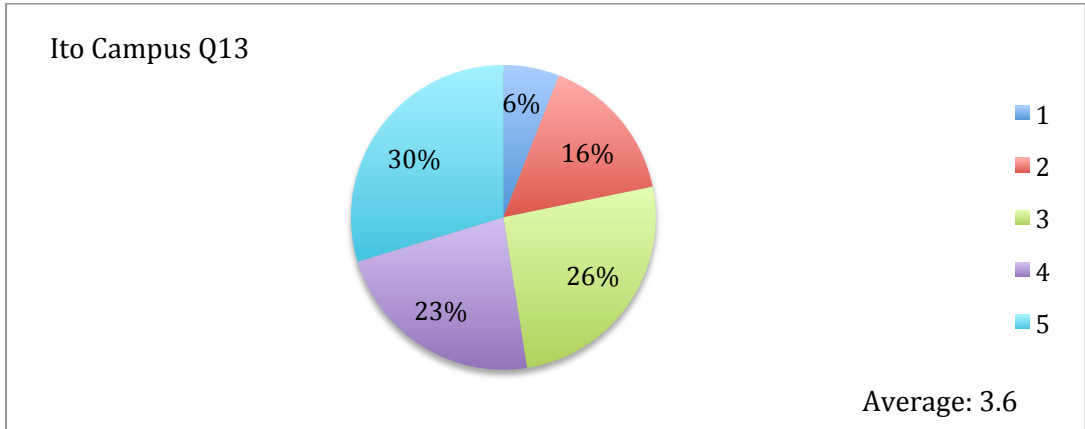


Figure 5- 33: Importance of Using French in Campus Signs

(1: Very important, 5: Not important at all)

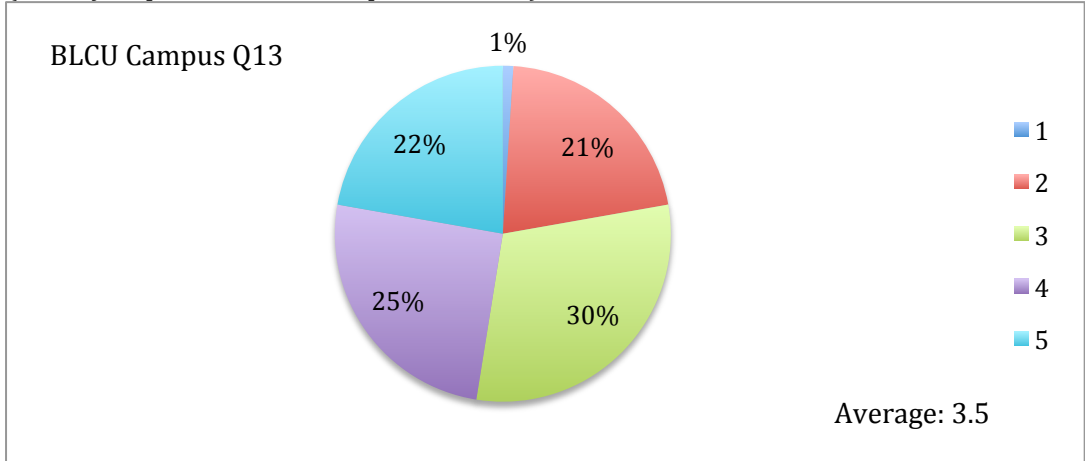


Figure 5- 34: Importance of Using French in Campus Signs

(1: Very important, 5: Not important at all)

The attitudes of the students towards each foreign language are examined from Q10 to Q13. Students in both campuses unanimously emphasize the

importance of English (Figure 27 & Figure 28), which is regarded as a necessity for overseas students who cannot speak Japanese or Chinese well at the beginning of their overseas study; and for the native Chinese and Japanese students, English has been a compulsory subject which is highly valued. The role of Chinese language on Ito Campus is regarded as relatively important on Ito Campus (Average: 2.7), in contrast to the role of Japanese language on BLCU Campus (Average: 3.6), which is deemed less important. Besides, the survey results show a bit of difference in the students' attitudes towards Korean. On BLCU Campus, the students' attitude tends to be neutral (Average: 2.9), compared with a lower evaluation of Ito Campus students (Average: 3.3). I assume that the usage of French will not be widely accepted, and indeed the students evaluate French to be less important for them, probably in terms of getting information in their daily life.

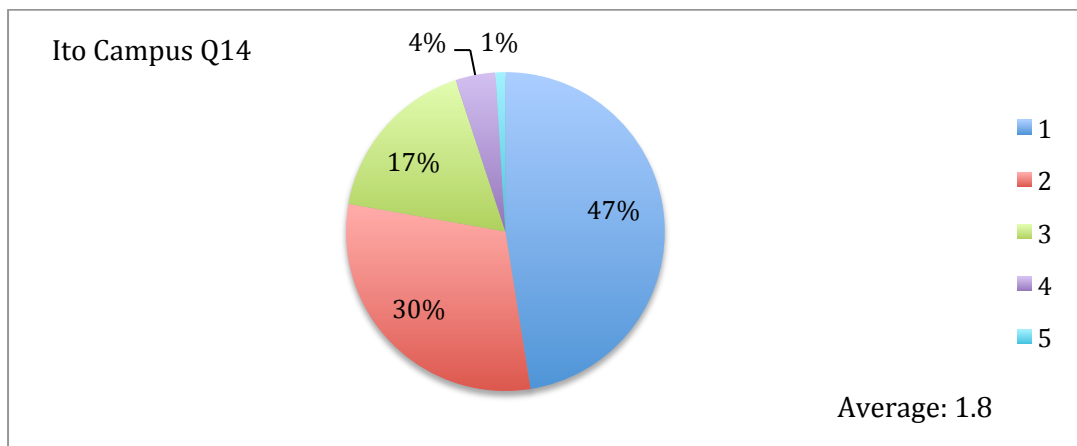


Figure 5- 35: General Feeling about Living on a Multilingual Campus

(1: Very good, 5: Very bad)

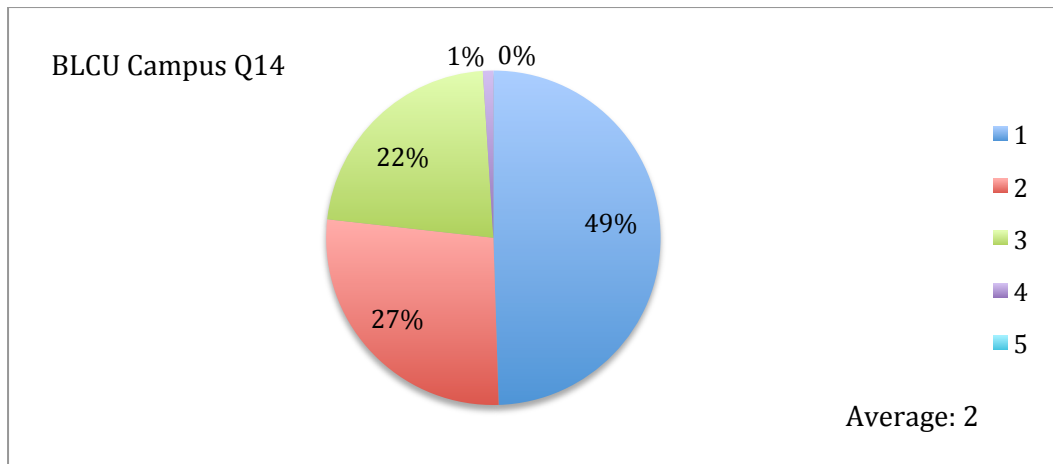


Figure 5- 36: General Feeling about a Living on a Multilingual Campus

(1: Very good, 5: Very bad)

The last question attempts to get a general understanding of the students' feeling about the coexistence of native language and foreign languages on campus. The results show that the students are quite affirmative (Average: 1.7 & Average: 2). Also, in Q15, students are invited to share their ideas and opinions about campus signs. Some express their hopes to improve the sign translation; their preferences for certain languages used on campus; and their eagerness to learn the native languages in both countries.

5.5 Discussion and Summary

This survey of the actual construction of the campus linguistic landscape and the investigation of the students' attitudes towards it constitute a major part of the current research project. The findings of the language use demonstrate the existence of multilingualism on both campuses. With the responses from the students, the construction of campus linguistic landscape, and the policies and regulations at various levels, this study triangulates the perspectives and provides sufficient data for the examination of the campus linguistic landscape. The campuses in both countries provide an opportunity for the students

worldwide to study and live together for a period of time, and a special multi-ethnic community is thus formed. For the students from other countries, their stay in either China or Japan is temporary, but for the native Chinese and Japanese, and for the campus of that city, the existence of the “foreign elements” is always there. As time goes on, both the campus and its corresponding facilities are adjusted to fit with this multi-ethnic community, and this community also exerts constant influence on the campus and even on the city in which it resides. For instance, Beijing Language and Cultural University is famous for having overseas students worldwide, so it got a nickname “Little United Nations”, which is well known in Beijing. Moreover, the neighborhood near the subway station Wudaokou, which is right beside Beijing Language and Culture University, is known as having a large number of Korean residences. So it is not uncommon to find many stores put Korean words on the shop plates and commodities inside the shops. There is no doubt that English is expected to be used on campus, especially for those who did not study Chinese or Japanese before they come to China and Japan. Since the foreign students are studying in China and Japan, they should learn the national language to some degree, at least for daily life use. In that case, the real language competence of the students is fairly complicated. The result of this survey shows that the usage of English on both campuses is highly valued.

In the urban area, English is becoming more popular due to its use in advertising and its role for the purposes of commodification. However, on campus, it plays dual roles as lingua franca and a symbol of modernity. As I found on Ito Campus, Japanese-English bilingual signs compose the majority of campus signs, most of which serve for navigation on campus, for example, building

names on the nameplate displayed at the crossroads and directing signboards for parking lots and informing signs at the bus stop. In contrast, unilingual English signboards are almost always found in business on campus, such as the name for shops, restaurants, cafeterias and convenience stores. As Dimova (2007) claimed that English, indicating leisure, fashion, luxury and entertainment, follows traditional French nomenclature. She also connects the presence of English in shop signs with the presence of Western consumerism. Similarly, on campus, the sign displayers of private businesses also try to attract customers by associating the use of English with internationalization, modernity, and prestige. English-only signs help elevating the status of these shops and equate them with high quality, high society and luxury. Even if the English words are incomprehensible for some, they still attract the consumers because of their prestige and exotic flavor. In addition to English, other foreign languages also appear most often in business areas on campus. On BLCU campus, shop owners tend to adopt multilingual signs for advertising their businesses. For restaurants, Japanese and Korean signs are often used, which target at overseas students from Japan and Korea who compose the majority of overseas students on campus. Both English and other foreign languages are carrying enough additional meanings that stimulate the construction of multilingual campus.

Although signs in English are available in many of places and cases, and several other languages have been adopted into signs on campus, as this survey has found, some students still want to add more foreign languages on campus signboards beside Korean and French, for example, Spanish, German, and Russian. The order of those languages given by the students indicates that they consider the number of students first, which is also proved to be true in the

following interview survey. Based on the results of the questionnaire survey, combining the previous analysis of language policy and construction of the linguistic landscape of shops and campuses, the following chapter (section 6.3) will interpret the findings from both questionnaire and interview surveys in more details in order to get a better understanding of the language usage in and psychological responses to the linguistic landscapes of both campuses.

CHAPTER 6 INTERPRETATION OF THE CONSTRUCTION OF CAMPUS LINGUISTIC LANDSCAPE AND STUDENTS' ATTITUDES

6.1 Introduction

This chapter first focuses on some geosemiotic features of campus signs in order to explore how different languages are displayed and arranged and the actual construction of the campus linguistic landscapes in China and Japan. Drawing on Kress and Van Leeuwen's seminal work (1998) on the grammar of visual design and Scollon and Scollon's work on Geosemiotics (2003), this study will analyze the interaction of text and visual data in campus signs, code preference (salience of the language, the text vector and multilingual text arrangement in terms of translation). With the analysis of code, this chapter explores the remaining three elements of the "Speaking Model", "Key" (K), "Act Sequence" (K) and "Instrumentalities" (I). Then I will provide a further examination of the students' psychological responses to the multilingual campus by analyzing the results of questionnaires and interviews, which explores the background and formation of student attitudes.

6.2 Geosemiotic Understanding of Campus Signs

Hymes (1972, p. 62) noted, "Key is introduced to provide for the tone, manner, or spirit in which an act is done." Huebner (2009) developed this notion and stated that the amount of text, degree of explicitness of the message and choice of code jointly expressed the "Key" in the linguistic landscape. Previous chapter briefly showed the language choice on campus signs. Based on those findings, I will analyze the "Key" of campus linguistic landscape. In addition, Hymes (1972, pp. 62-63) discussed both "Channels" and "Forms of speech" in the

understanding of “instrumentalities”, which explicates the way of “transmission of speech”, such as oral, written and telegraphic, and variations in the forms of language, such as dialect, code, and register. This section will first account for these two components through the geosemiotic analysis of campus signs.

6.2.1 Interaction of Texts and Images in Campus Signs

The question of whether visual data (images and other multimodal literacies) should be included into the analysis of linguistic landscape is still under debate by scholars, as has been mentioned in previous chapters. It is known that scholars hold different views. More often than not, signs include images or other graphic elements as well as text. Kress and Leeuwen (1998, p. 186) claimed “Language always has to be realized through, and comes in the company of, other semiotic modes.” Goddard (2001, p. 13) also stated “...readers do not simply read images in isolation from the verbal text that accompanies them; nor do they read verbal text without reference to accompanying images.” Kress and Leeuwen (1998, p. 187) identified that semiotic modes interrelate in three different ways:

Writing may remain dominant, with the visual filling a ‘prosodic’ role of highlighting important points and emphasizing structural connections. But it may also diminish in importance, with the message articulated primarily in the visual mode, and the words serving as commentary and elaboration. Visually and verbally expressed meaning may be each other’s double and express the same meanings, or they may complement and extend each other, or even clash and contradict.

It can be concluded that the meaning of a visual object is always produced by multiple possible elements related to it, and the interactions of those elements that compose the object as a whole. Huebner (2009, p. 75) indicated that common message forms were shared by members of a common genre, and

defines “forms” as the placement, the inclusion of other linguistic and non-linguistic material, and other acts that comprise linguistic material. The close observation of the campus linguistic landscape indicates the complexity in the formation of a sign, in particular, the interaction of text and images or semiotic signs. It is difficult for the observer to include all the visually presented format of campus signs, such as the “layout”, “spatial arrangement of blocks of text, of pictures, and other “graphic elements”, as mentioned by Kress and Leeuwen (1998) Therefore, the role of text and images (as visual data) on campus signs will be examined and analyzed for the current study.

Table 6- 1: Number of Text-Only and Visual Data Added Text Signs (Ito Campus)			
Setting	Text-Only		Visual Data Added
Cafeteria 29	7		22
Library 29	9		20
Gymnasium 34	20		14
Parking lot 28	4		24
Bus station 23	8		15
Shop 9	7		2
Open Plaza 5	2		3
Classroom building 29	15		14
Restaurant 6	2		4
Others 31	16		15
Total: 223	90	40%	133
			60%

Table 6- 2: Number of Text-Only and Visual Data Added Text Signs (BLCU Campus)			
Setting	Text-only		Visual Data Added
Cafeteria 20	7		13
Library 13	9		4
Gymnasium/Playground 33	16		17
Parking lot 7	6		1
Shop 31	17		14
Restaurant 14	4		10
Classroom building 14	5		9
Other buildings 15	10		5
Others 42	26		16
Total: 189	100	53%	89 47%

It is found that among the 223 signs collected on Ito Campus, 133 (60%) signs were text combined with images, and on BLCU Campus 89 out of 189 (47%) adopted images or signs into the signboards, which conformed with Kress and Leeuwen's (1998, p. 186) statement that "when we write, our message is expressed not only linguistically, but also through a visual arrangement of marks on a page." On Ito Campus, the roles of visual data are indicated in various forms: (1) campus maps and classroom layouts (with the message or information articulated primarily in the visual mode, with the words serving as commentary and elaboration); (2) arrows in directing notices, photos of dishes (with text and image complementing each other); (3) slarcles (Slash+circle) and cross marks (highlight importance and emphasizing structural connections), and so on. The following examples are provided to make these points clearer.

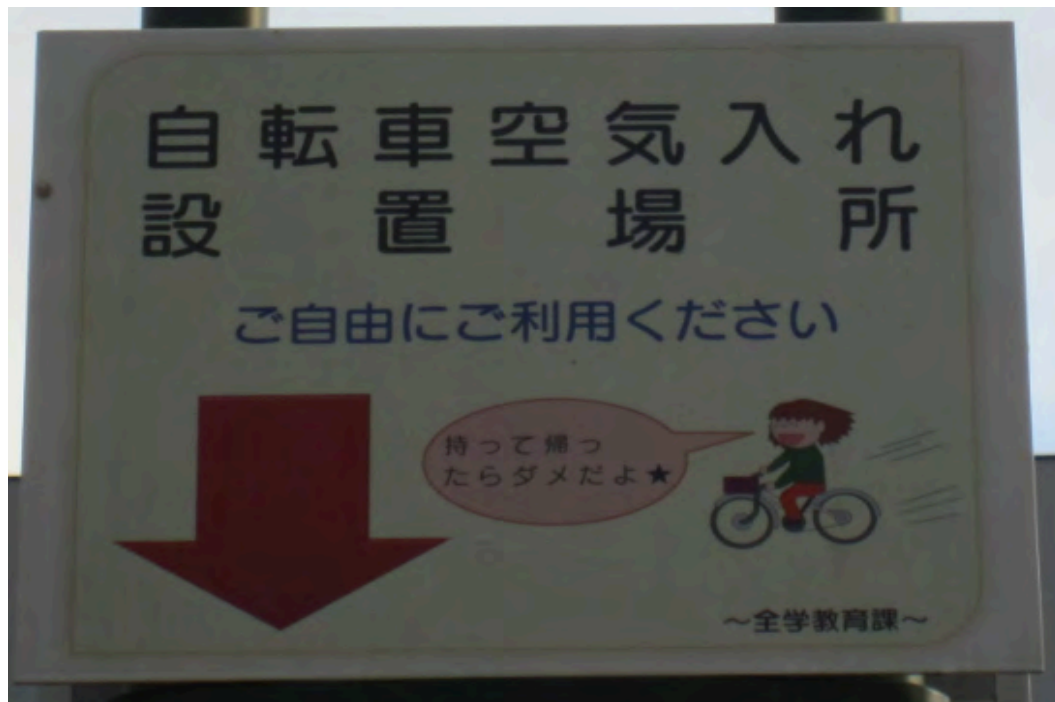


Figure 6- 1: Signboard in a Parking Lot on Ito Campus

This sign is located in the parking lot for bicycles near Center Zone Building 1, a classroom building. A bicycle pump is provided free of charge on Ito Campus, and several similar signs are displayed in other parking lots as well. On this signboard, the verbal text placed on the top of the board provides the theme of the sign (“a pump is provided here”), and the red arrow below directs the sign readers to the placement of the pump. Meanwhile, warning information is given in the lower right picture saying, “Taking the pump home is prohibited”. Designed in this way, the visual data fulfills both the role of emphasizing structural connections and complementing. Besides, the main linguistic message on the top in a bigger size is complemented with additional linguistic material in smaller size at the bottom.



Figure 6- 2: Notice in a Bus Stop on Ito Campus

This sign is found at the Big Orange bus stop, which is located beside the main road going through Ito Campus, to remind the Kyudai (Kyushu University) students to obey these rules when they take the bus so that they can leave a good impression of college students to other passengers. The message of this sign is articulated primarily in the visual mode, with the words serving as commentary and elaboration (Kress & Leeuwen, 1998). The cross mark indicating bad manners and circle mark indicating good manner, in company with text, help the sign to deliver thorough information to the intended readers. It is worthwhile to note that the red color used in the text and the marks give “weight” to the important information, and they become “heavier”, which strengthen the “salience” in the sign (Kress & Leeuwen, 1998, p. 200).



Figure 6- 3: “Keep Quiet” Signboard on BLCU Campus

The above picture placed near the school gate was taken on BLCU Campus in March 2012. On this signboard, the image of a city is placed as the background, with characters placed in the foreground. As Kress and Van Leeuwen (1998, p. 188) stated, “the elements of a layout attract the reader’s attention to different degrees, and through a wide variety of means: placement in the foreground or background, relative size...” The semiotic modes in such text can interrelate in different ways. In this picture, writing in the biggest size on the top (reads, “shh, it is class time now”) remains dominant, with the visual data fulfilling a “prosodic” role of highlighting important points by adding some rules on campus: No Venders, No Parking and No Honking. The “prohibition” sentence above the cityscape in bigger size and the image of a city inspector worked together to indicate the “authority” of this signboard. Malinowski (as cited in Huebner, 2009,

p. 80) identified both discourse of reason and discourse of threat of regulatory signs. For the above sign, the “desired action” is stressed more without indicating a “legal code”, which defines the overall warning tone of this sign at the same time. The interaction of text and visual data accounts for the “Key” and “Instrumentalities” of the campus linguistic landscape to a large degree. The following sections will bring more discussion on these two components through the examination of code.

6.2.2 Code Preference

6.2.2.1 The Salience of Language

Based on Kress and Van Leeuwen’s visual design grammar (1996), Scollon and Scollon (2003, p. 209) extended the discussion of language choice to include code preference, “the relationship between two or more languages in bilingual (multilingual) signs and pictures; The preferred code is on top when horizontally divided and on the left when vertically divided.” Moreover, “For something to be presented as “Centre” means that it is presented as the nucleus of the information to which all the other elements are in some sense subservient” (Kress & Leeuwen, 1998, p. 196). Their ideas will be applied into the interpretation of design of the signboards on both campuses and the examination of the saliency of language.

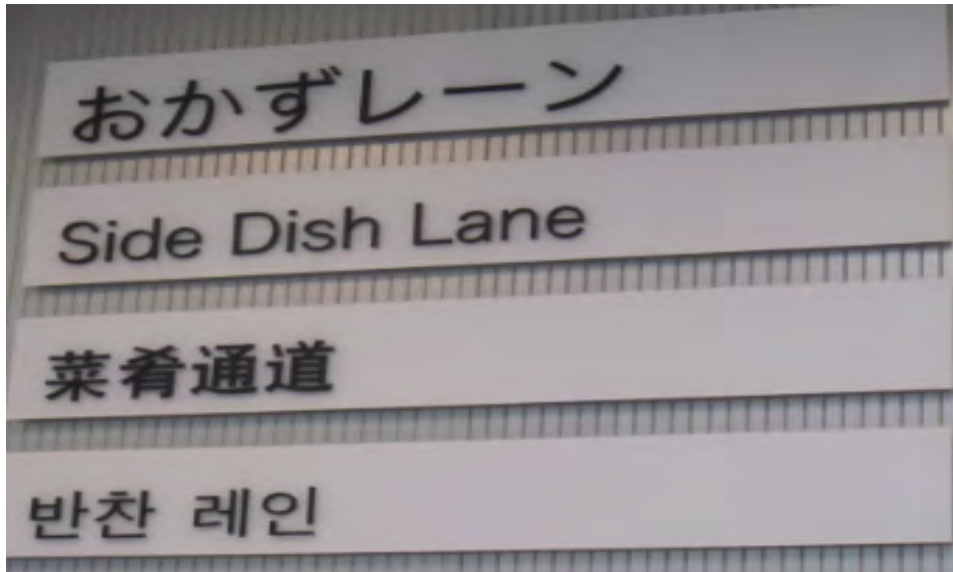


Figure 6- 4: Multilingual Signboard in the Cafeteria of Ito Campus



Figure 6- 5: Multilingual Signboard on BLCU Campus

On both campuses, the state languages, Japanese and Chinese, are presented in visually prominent positions in most campus signs (see Figure 6-4 & 6-5), above English or other languages, or in the center, or other prominent places. For instance, some signs include the state language in a bigger size than English; some use different color or color contrast to highlight the state language; Table 6-3 summarizes the code preference of the Ito Campus signs and Table 6-4 shows the code preference of the BLCU Campus signs.

Table 6- 3: Code Preference in Ito Campus Signs (n=106)								
Type	Japanese Preferred		English Preferred		Equal Preference		Others	
Bilingual	62		21		9		12	
Multilingual	1		0		0		1	
Total	63	59%	21	20%	9	8%	13	12%

Table 6- 4: Code Preference in BLCU Campus Signs (n=93)								
Type	Chinese Preferred		English Preferred		Equal Preference		Others	
Bilingual	59		9		4		4	
Multilingual	11		2		1		3	
Total	70	75%	11	12%	5	5%	7	8%

For some signs on Ito Campus, neither Japanese and English, nor any other language is put in a dominant or equal position; instead semiotic modes dominate the space of the signboard. As the figure 6-5 below shows, the directing arrow and the picture of a bicycle attract the attention of readers more than the text, which diminishes the importance of the text that serves as elaboration (Kress & Leeuwen, 1998, p. 187).



Figure 6- 6: Bicycle Parking on Ito Campus

6.2.2.2 Arrangement of multilingual text

Hymes (1972, p. 60) noted that message form and message content work together to show the “Act Sequence”. Huebner (2009, p. 78) stated, “The sequence of act sets among various genres across language communities has not been explored with respect to LLS.” Malinowski (as cited in Huebner, 2009) focused on the regulatory street signs and identified the “Act Sequence” imbedded in them: first, a prohibition is given; second, a possible sequence; third, the authority related is provided. In the multilingual context of campus signs, whether the same sequence of acts will be presented in both or all languages can be investigated through a further analysis of the form and arrangement of native languages and foreign languages on the signs. Reh (2004) classified the multilingual writing into four types (1) duplicating information: exact information given in different languages (2) fragmentary: full information provided in one language with partial information translated into other languages (3) overlapping: some information given in one or more languages with partial information in only one language; and (4) complementary: whole information scattered into different languages (pp. 8-15). However, on campus, there is no clear division for some overlapping and fragmentary messages on signs. As the trilingual signboard Figure 6-10 shows, comprehensive information is provided in Chinese, with simple and selected words translated into English (the ones who only read English cannot get that more “service” are available, such as “Fur Coat Maintenance”, “Darning”, and “Sweater Restoration”), but the Korean translation offer comparatively more information. In such a situation, it is difficult for the researcher to draw a line between the second and third type of

multilingual writing on the campus signboard. Therefore, I put them together in my survey, as the following summary tables (Table 6-5 & Table 6-6) summarized.

Table 6- 5: Types of Bilingual and Multilingual Information Arrangement (Ito Campus)						
Type	Duplicating		Fragmentary/ Overlapping		Complementary	
Bilingual (n=104)	59		39		5	
Multilingual (n=2)	1		0		2	
Total (n=106)	60	57%	39	37%	7	7%

Table 6- 6: Types of Bilingual and Multilingual Information Arrangement (BLCU Campus)						
Type	Duplicating		Fragmentary/ Overlapping		Complementary	
Bilingual (n=76)	46		22		8	
Multilingual (n=17)	5		12		0	
Total (n=93)	51	55%	34	37%	8	9%

As the above tables indicate, more than half of the signs in native language have been totally translated in both campuses. In terms of act sequence, however, those signs show simplicity and conciseness in form and content (see Figure 6-7 and Figure 6-8).



Figure 6- 7: Arrangement of Bilingual Text on Ito Campus



Figure 6- 8: Arrangement of Bilingual Text on BLCU Campus

These two directing signboards are typical instances of duplicating information in bilingual context, which are commonly seen on both campuses. The act sequence of these two signs is implicitly told (only main content is provided), but it can be assumed that the authorities are the related administrative departments of both universities. For some of the multilingual signs on campus, they are hardly equal in providing information (see Figure 6-9

& Figure 6-10), not to speak of the act sequence. One possible reason could be the consideration of the space of a given signboard. A guidebook on sign display from Akita prefecture in Japan included an entire section giving instructions on the arrangement of the multilingual text when the space is not large enough to accommodate all the information. More complex act sequences of campus signs are usually found in the unilingual signs on both campuses (see Figure 6-11). A sign in conformity with Malinowski's analysis of regulatory signs, including a prohibition (on the top as a headline), a possible consequence (main content), and the related authority (at the bottom as clarification) are shown in Figure 6-11. It is a sign marking a certain parking area as reserved for women and injured people. The three elements identified by Malinowski are applicable to some regulatory signs and notices on campus, but many of the campus signs do not follow this rule and most of them just show the main content as a "prohibition" without a headline and clarification. In addition, it is noteworthy that this type of information is rarely translated into foreign languages thoroughly on either campus. The arduous translation tasks of this kind of sign might be a major concern as large volumes of information is usually loaded in them. Besides, some of them are only for temporary use or just work as polite reminders rather than as signs indicating potential danger, so there is not a necessity to translate or make the related authority clear.



Figure 6- 9: Unequal Information in Multilingual Signs on BLCU Campus



Figure 6- 10: Unequal Information in Multilingual Signs on BLCU Campus

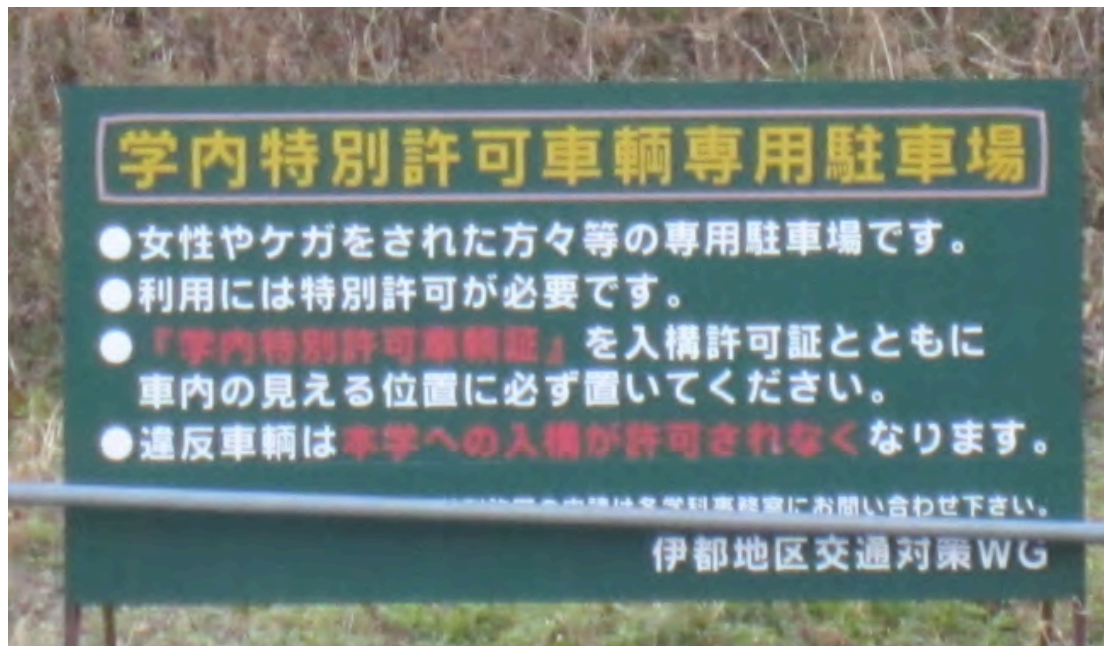


Figure 6- 11: Act Sequence in the Notice on Ito Campus

6.2.2.3 Text Vector

The text vector, that is the direction of writing, is an important semiotic code in Geosemiotics. Scollon and Scollon (2003, p. 216) state that text vector refers to “the normal or conventional reading direction of text in a language.” They also note that English has a text vector from left to right; customarily Chinese could be left to right, right to left, or top to bottom. Japanese, like Chinese is customarily written both in a horizontal vector from left to right and in a vertical vector from right to left. In both Japanese and Chinese, code preference is given to the version of a message positioned on top (in horizontal text) or on the right (in vertical text). On both campuses, as Table 6-7 and Table 6-8 summarized, among the five types of text vectors, the left-right text vector is most commonly used; while the right to left text vector is rarely found (see Figure 6-12 & Figure 6-13).

Table 6- 7: Vectors in Japanese Contained Signs on Ito Campus										
Type	Left-Right		Top-Bottom		Left-Right & Top-Bottom		Right-Left		N.A.	
Japanese Unilingual Sign (n=99)	79		12		4		3		1	
Bilingual and Multilingual Sign (n=106)	99		1		2		1		3	
Total (n=205)	178	87%	13	6%	6	3%	4	2%	4	2%

Table 6- 8: Vectors in Chinese Contained Signs on BLCU Campus										
Type	Left-Right		Top-Bottom		Left-Right & Top-Bottom		Right-Left		N.A.	
Chinese Unilingual Signs (n=95)	73		5		7		9		1	
Bilingual and Multilingual Sign (n=92)	82		0		8		0		2	
Total (n=187)	165	88%	5	3%	15	8%	9	5%	3	2%

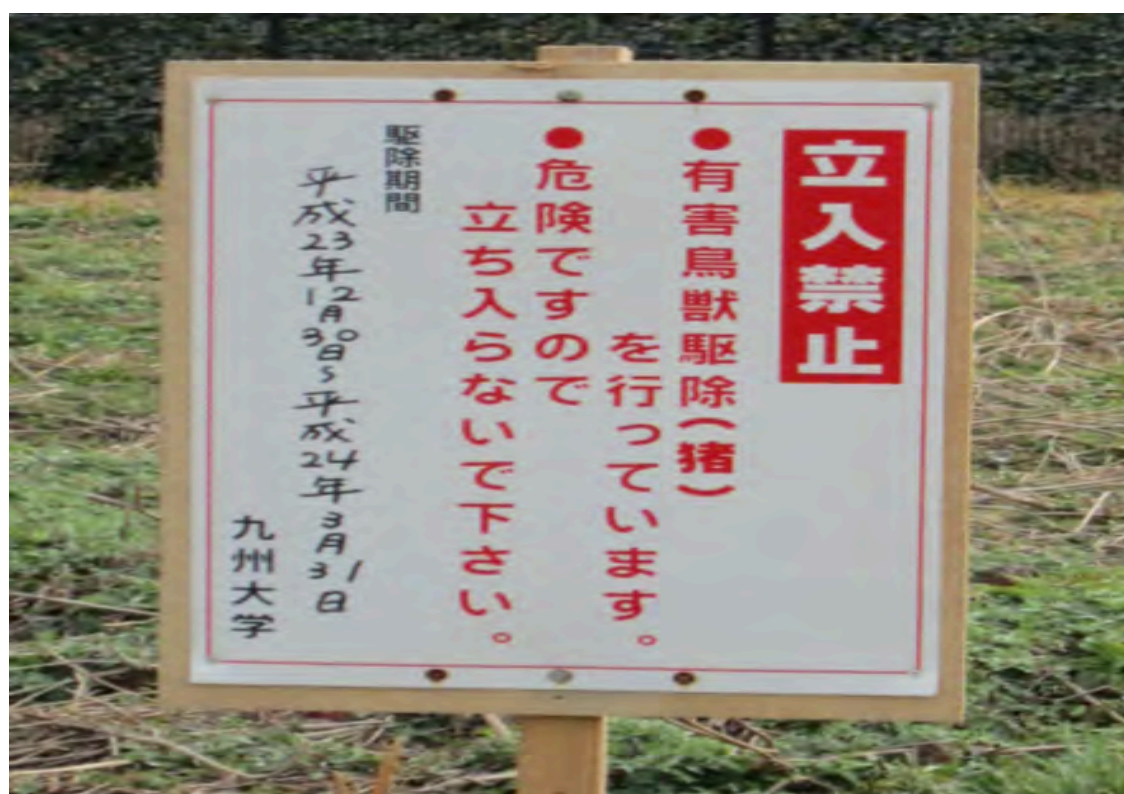


Figure 6- 12: Right-Left Text Vector in the Signboard on Ito Campus



Figure 6- 13: Right-Left Text Vector in the Signboard on BLCU Campus

In the case of the above two pictures, the unilingual signs in right-left reading direction give preference to the right side. Besides, there is a possibility to analyze the language saliency in signboards in terms of text vector in a bilingual and multilingual text. In practice, however, it is hard to provide a principle to judge the saliency of a language or code preference. As Scollon and Scollon (2003, p. 121) noted:

Of course we will need to clarify more carefully that we do not really have any solid evidence about languages that have a normal text vector (direction of writing) from right to left such as Arabic, nor about how Arabic and English are displayed to show code preference where both of those languages are used. Much research remains to be done in this area. But to return to the methodological point, in places such as Hong Kong and Quebec the relative position of the two official codes is governed by law and is in agreement; that is the upper position in signs is the preferred position ... Also the preferred code in Quebec, French, must be presented as more salient than any secondary or peripheral code.

Naturally, these legal policies are frequently violated, particularly in domains at some distance from legal concern. For example, in Hong Kong street signs and governmental offices fall within these strictures, but commercial signs and private notices are not regulated by these policies.

This study does not classify the campus signs into official and non-official signs as other studies did, but has made it clear that there is a mix of official or public and non-official or private or commercial signs in the public sphere of campus. Given the fact that Japanese and English are regulated as two basic languages for signs in many municipal guidebooks of Japan, and Chinese and their English translations have been the focus of public sign service in China, it is reasonable that most of the Japanese/Chinese-English bilingual campus signs place the native languages above English. For the differences in text vector, by which we understand the code preference, it is important to note that the right-left text vector is almost always found in unilingual Japanese or Chinese signs that give preference to the text on the right; and if several languages are within one signboard, usually they share the same text vector and give preference to the text on the top.

6.3 Analysis of the Code of Campus Signs

To explore the construction of campus linguistic landscape, I will further analyze the “instrumentalities” in the “Speaking Model” through the examination on the code of some campus signs. Huebner (2010) developed Hymes’ notion of “Channels” and “Forms of speech”, and put forward some possibilities to substantiate the analysis of artifacts found in linguistic landscape by providing examples from previous studies in advertising. Based on those suggestions, I will provide some examples of campus signs to analyze the code.

Huebner pointed out some special ways to transmit messages in the representation of linguistic landscape, such as video billboards, television advertising, and loud speakers, besides the commonly recognized objects with

written information. On the two campuses, I also noticed the appearance of electronic visual displays: television notices, electronic screens displaying notices, video notices, and the like, which compose a digital signage. However, messages in these types of “signs” (in a broad sense) often change frequently, so it is difficult to capture the features and changes in those constituent parts of the whole linguistic landscape. So far, they have not been taken into the linguistic landscape research, and it is a potential but complex genre to analyze.

Hymes (1972, p. 63) indicated, “Channels and forms of speech can be joined together as means or agencies of speaking and labeled, partly for the sake of the code word, partly with an eye on the use *instrumental* in grammar, as *instrumentalities*.” He claims, “‘Code’ suggests decoding and the question of intelligibility”, such as the unintelligibility caused by “addition, deletion, substitution, and permutation in various combinations”; and “Register” refers to “specific situations”, “varieties”, or “functional varieties”. Huebner held that the choice of lexicon, orthography, syntax, scripts, multilingual context, and so on, were all the concerns to investigate those two elements of instrumentalities. Bringing in examples from both campuses, this study will explore those concerns in the campus linguistic landscape.

First, campus signs basically present the “informing” function, as I have summarized in Section 4.6, and many of them adopt short phrases into those signs. Moreover, it is found that noun phrases compose an important part of the signs, especially the nameplates for shops and buildings. Those noun phrases also bring questions to the identification of languages used in signs. On Ito Campus, there is an engraved block of marble with the name “Kyushu University” carved into it in both Kanji and Romanized letters (see Figure 6-14). On the top is

the Chinese character “九州”, and below it is the Romanization “Kyushu”. It is an “established translation” to Romanize proper names into English, rather than trying to translate them (for example, into “9 countries”, the literal meaning of 九州). So, should the word “Kyushu” written in Romanized letters at the bottom of the sign be counted as Japanese words or an English word? In the counting of signs in this study, I take such Romanization’s as English language. I treat similar situations of pinyin Romanization of Chinese proper names as English in my survey of Beijing Language and Cultural University. It is necessary to point out that there have been controversies and discussions on how to classify proper names by language (Rosenbaum, 1977; Spolsky & Cooper, 1991; Backhaus, 2007). Edelman (2007, p. 4) noted, “The answer to this question [the classification of proper names] has important implications for the coding of signs in linguistic landscape research.” One more example is the personal names used in signs. On Ito campus, as Figure 6-15 shows, “Inamori Center” named after Kazuo Inamori, the president of the Inamori Foundation, who donated to and supported a variety of research activities in Japan. In this sign, “Inamori”, the Romanization of personal name, also works as the translation from Japanese to English. Edelman also questioned whether this kind of name could become a part of English if it is used in this way, or it is still a Japanese name.

Another issue is the use of Romanization that differs from the currently established Romanization systems. For example, many Chinese born before the establishment of the *pinyin* system, or who resided outside of Mainland China, employed Romanized names which differ from the current standardized names. Sign displayers are faced with the possibility that different scripts might make it

difficult for readers to understand the signs. Figure 6-16 is a nameplate found on BLCU campus, on which the third item gives additional Romanization of a Chinese person's name in parentheses. "Yifu" is a famous philanthropist based in Hong Kong, who has made substantial donations to charities and schools. In Mainland China and Hong Kong, one can find many buildings named after him on university campuses. His birth name is Shao Renleng. "Yifu" is his pseudonym, and it is also the name often used for school buildings. However, the sign include "Run Run Shaw" written in parentheses, probably because it is the name by which he is known in English texts. The sign also includes the *pinyin* transcription "Yifu" of the equivalent Chinese characters. If the sign displayer only used "Run Run Shaw", many Chinese readers would not understand who he is and might think that it could be a wrong translation of the Chinese characters. In fact, "Run Run Shaw" is an idiosyncratic Romanization created by Shao Renleng himself, not based on any well-known Romanization of his official Chinese name. Other examples include the continued use of pre-*pinyin* Romanizations of institutions like Peking University and Tsinghua University. In his analysis of the brand names in advertisements that adopted personal names, Edelman (2007, p. 1) identified the increasing use of foreign elements and indicated, "This may also hold for signs in the public space." The examples above prove his supposition. There are other idiosyncratic uses of language on campus as well.

Figure 6-17 and Figure 6-18 found at a bus stop and crossroad of Ito Campus display the use of quotation marks for special use on campus signs, "Big Orange" and "Big Sando", which is an unusual and interesting phenomenon. It is after understanding the history of Ito Campus that the use of quotation marks

can be explained. There are stories behind the creation of these two names. First, Ito Campus is built where there used to be an orange orchard on a mountain, so that special area is named “Big Orange”. Now, both a restaurant and bus stop are named “Big Orange” (including quotation marks), and the outside of the restaurant building is also decorated in orange. Second, similarly, “Big Sando” is the name for the three-story building with support facilities including a cafeteria, a convenience store, and Counseling and Health Center. Because the shape of this building is like a sandwich, “Sando” is used as its name. But rather than use the full word “サンドイッチ(“sandwich”, pronounced as sandoicchi)”, the university used “サンド” (pronounced “sando”), a slang shortening of the name. For the English translation, rather than translating the word into “Sandwich”, the Japanese slang term “sando” is simply transcribed so that the first half of the word “Sando” appears on this signboard. MacGregor (2003) called this kind of use as “Japanized” words. These two examples show an interesting way of displaying signs on campus, as the quotation marks introduce the origin and history of the name. She (MacGregor, 2003, p. 18) further indicated that “Katakana has proven to be a meanings to go beyond direct borrowing; it is a unique medium for ‘made-in-Japan’ English (*waseieigo*), which takes English or other foreign words and creates new combinations and meanings which are used as a form of Japanese.” She (p. 21) also emphasized in her analysis that “the creative ‘made-in-Japan’ English that is selected sometimes more for its visual charm than for any meaning it might carry.” At the beginning of this research I have mentioned that there are an increasing “Chinglish” and “Japlish” usages in China and Japan, many of which are caused by mistranslation. However, these kinds of variations of English are not commonly seen on campus. Figure 6-19 is

another example (part of a signboard), a signboard displayed in front of a Chinese restaurant named “Ten Ten”. According to the waitress in the restaurant, the owner chose two Chinese characters “天天” (tiantian in Pinyin) as the restaurant’s name, but on the signboard they used the Japanese pronunciation and Romanization of the Chinese characters, “Ten Ten”. It delivers two meanings, “everyday” and “god”. However, the Japanese readers still can hardly understand this name. Above it, the six characters “中国家庭料理” (Chinese Home-made Dishes) can be interpreted as either Japanese or Chinese, because they are exactly same in both languages. This brings one more major concern of the use of different scripts in a given linguistic landscape. In Japanese, there are four scripts for writing. On Ito Campus, the majority of the signboards use Kanji-only or combine Kanji with Hiragana, Katakana, or Romaji. As Backhaus (2007) explained, Kanji represents lexical morphemes, and Hiragana is used to represent grammatical morphemes and function words. Table 6-19 summarizes the use of scripts in different combinations and their frequency on campus signs. Backhaus (2007, p. 28) noted, “Any longer passage of written Japanese is likely to contain all of four scripts.” On Ito campus, most of the Kanji-only and Katakana-only signs are nameplates, most of which are noun phrases; and short warning verbal phrases that prevent the driver from “illegal” parking (see Figure 6-20 and Figure 6-21 for examples). Usually notices on campus adopt four scripts, in the headline, main body and related authority at the bottom. Roman letters seldom are used together with any of the other three Japanese scripts in the Japanese-only signboards (Figure 6-11 is an example). The authority of this notice in the right-bottom combine Roman letters “WG”, which means, “working group”, with Kanji. Moreover, only one Roman letter-only sign is found on Ito

Campus (see Figure 6-22), which differs from the frequency of Roman letter found in shop signs in Tokyo greatly. Masai's (as cited in Backhaus, 2007) findings manifest a larger number of Roman letters used in shop signs, as Table 6-20 shows.

Type	Unilingual (n=99)	Bilingual (n=103)	Multilingual (n=2)	Frequency (n=204)
Kanji-only	21	23	0	44 (22%)
Kanji contained	77	81	0	158 (77%)
Hiragana-only	13	4	0	17 (8%)
Hiragana contained	90	70	1	160 (78%)
Katakana-only	8	33	1	41 (20%)
Katakana contained	85	99	1	185 (91%)
Romaji-only	1	0	1	2 (1%)
Romaji contained	2	0	1	3 (1%)

Scripts	Frequency
Kanji only	42%
Kanji contained	77%
Hiragana only	3%
Hiragana contained	20%
Katakana only	7%
Katakana contained	33%
Roman alphabet only	3%
Roman alphabet contained	21%

(Backhaus cited from Masai, 2007, p. 49)

Backhaus (2007, p. 49) also noted that in another survey, Someya's (2002) research findings share many similarities of Masai's observation, and pointed out, "Kanji is the script most frequently used", "the two Kana scripts tend to appear mainly in combination with other scripts", and "Roman letters were preferably used in Western-style business..." The findings on Ito campus show similar

tendency. The smaller number of Roman letter on campus signs of Ito can be ascribed to the limited number of business on campus, which might have contributed to the diversity of languages. However, on BLCU Campus, it is rare to see the combination of Chinese characters with Roman alphabet (English translation is another concern). In fact, Pinyin, the Romanization of Chinese characters, usually comes with the English translation. Figure 6-23 is a typical example of the adoption of Pinyin into English translation. In this sign “xin xin” is a transliteration of a person’s name, which is also used as the name of the shop. “piaoyi” is the Romanization of “飘逸”, which is an adjective to describe the “flowing hair”. Written in this way, “piaoyi” is meaningless for readers that only read English, but this kind of use often appears in the combination with English translation, and in some sense it has been a way of translation in practice. This common phenomenon also explains why so many Chinese scholars only pay attention on sign translation research, as I discussed in Section 2.6. The mistakes in spelling are obvious on the signboard, thus finding out the mistakes and proposing translation strategies have been the focus and main task of Chinese scholars for the last ten years.

The change on the syntax of Japanese or Chinese on campus signs is the insertion of Roman letters or English words used as “decoration”. Figure 6-11 is an example that adopts Roman letters “WG” (right-bottom) into Kanji. They work together to clarify the authority information. On Figure 6-24 and Figure 6-26 found on BLCU Campus, “4F” is used with Chinese characters to tell the address of the restaurants to readers. One more similar phenomenon is the use of capital letter “P” for the parking lots, which can be found on both campuses. “P” solely often works with Kanji-only or Chinese-only messages, thus has become a

constituent part of either Japanese or Chinese language in practical use in spite of its role as an English transition for “parking lots”. Figure 6-25 is also a common usage happened to Chinese-only syntax. “AM” and “PM” is directed to a general audience who may not really understand the meaning of these abbreviations. In some cases, although English translation is given on a signboard, it just works as “decoration” (see Figure 6-27). One can hardly see the English letters below the cute image from a few meters away, which prevents it from delivering the message to readers. As a matter of fact, the Chinese characters in big size perform the informing function in practice. Because of the limited number of those signs and the complex situation of each sign, it is difficult to generalize the changes at the lexical and syntactical levels, but the analysis better account for the three remaining components of the “Speaking Model”.



Figure 6- 14: Nameplate of Kyushu University Figure 6- 15: Inamori Center on Ito Campus

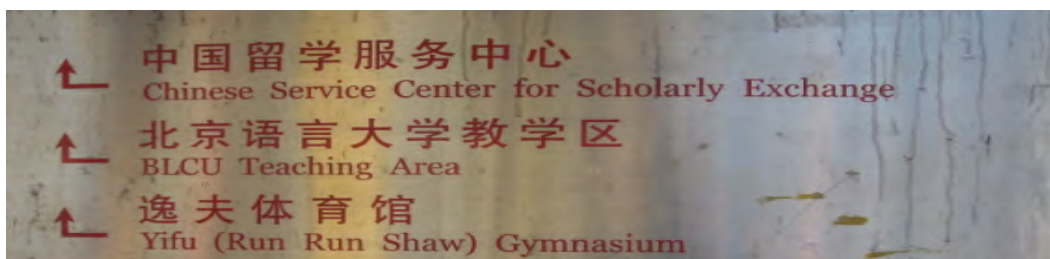


Figure 6- 16: Nameplate on BLCU Campus



Figure 6- 17: Nameplate at a Bus Stop of Ito Campus



Figure 6- 18: Nameplate at an Intersection of Ito Campus



Figure 6- 19: Nameplate of the Ten Ten Restaurant on Ito Campus



Figure 6- 20: Nameplate of Ito Library



Figure 6- 21: "No Entrance" Signboard



Figure 6- 22: Romaji-only Signboard



Figure 6- 23: Nameplate of a Barbershop On BLCU Campus



Figure 6- 24: Advertisement for the Sushi Restaurant on BLCU Campus



Figure 6- 25: Notice on a Shop Entry Door on BLCU Campus



Figure 6- 26: Notice for the Sushi Restaurant on BLCU Campus



Figure 6- 27: Nameplate of the Milk Tea Shop on BLCU Campus

6.4 Understanding the Attitudes of Students

I have reported the survey findings of questionnaires in Chapter 5, which provided a general analysis of students' attitudes about language usage on both campuses. This section will provide further analysis on student attitudes, combining the background of the participants and the results of interviews of 8 informants from each campus. The questionnaire surveyed students from both the home country and the largest overseas country populations. Restricted by the scale of the survey, not all the countries from which the students come are included, but the results are illustrative for understanding the current state of students' perceptions. Table 6-9 and Table 6-10 give detailed information of the identities of those participants: on Ito Campus, students from 12 countries and 7 departments or schools participated, and on BLCU Campus, students from 16 countries and 9 departments or schools joined the questionnaire survey. Moreover, on Ito Campus, the focus is on the overseas students from China, Indonesia, Korea, and Vietnam, who also constitute the majority of overseas students of Kyushu University; the same is true of BLCU Campus, with the majority of participants from Korea, Japan, and America. In addition, the informants of the interview are also listed in Table 6-11 and Table 6-12, and some of their opinions related to the formation of students' attitudes will be adopted and discussed.

Table 6- 9: Background of the Participants from Ito Campus					
Department (n=7)	Number (n=70)	Nationality (n=12)	Number	Nationality	Number
Engineering	27	Japanese	35	Iranian	1
Culture studies	17	Chinese	13	Polish	1
Mathematics	14	Indonesian	7	French	1
Information science	7	Korean	4	Indian	1
Agriculture	2	Vietnamese	4	American	1
Law	2	Malay	1		
Humanities	1	Philippines	1		

Table 6- 10: Background of the Participants from BLCU Campus					
Department/Status (n=9)	Number (n=67)	Nationality (n=16)	Number	Nationality	Number
Chinese language	21	Chinese	32	Italian	2
Chinese research center	1	American	5	Romanian	2
International business	7	Japanese	4	Saudi Arabia	1
Foreign languages	15	Mexican	4	Spanish	1
External Chinese research center	2	Irish	3	French	1
Humanities	6	Korean	3	Portuguese	1
Information Science	8	Russian	3	Canadian	1
Research student	3	Thai	2		
Exchange student	4	Hungarian	2	Total	16

Table 6- 11: Informants from Ito Campus				
NO.	Nationality	Status	Age	Department
No. 1	Chinese	Graduate	20s	Engineering
No. 2	Chinese	Graduate	20s	Information Science
No. 3	Chilean	Research student	30s	Social and Cultural Studies
No. 4	German	Post Doctoral	30s	Mathematics
No. 5	Korean	Exchange student	20s	Social and Cultural Studies
No. 6	Argentinean	Graduate	30s	Social and Cultural Studies
No. 7	Japanese	Graduate	60s	Social and Cultural Studies
No. 8	Indonesian	Graduate	30s	Engineering

Table 6- 12: Informants from BLCU Campus				
NO.	Nationality	Status	Age	Department
No. 1	Mexican	Undergraduate	Teenage	Chinese
No. 2	Japanese	Undergraduate	30s	Chinese
No. 3	Japanese	Research student	30s	Chinese
No. 4	Chinese	Undergraduate	Teenage	Information Science
No. 5	Korean	Undergraduate	30s	International Business
No. 6	Chinese	Undergraduate	20s	International Business
No. 7	Korean	Graduate	20s	Education
No. 8	German	Undergraduate	20s	Chinese

It has been found that the importance of native languages of both counties is highly valued by both native students and overseas students from both campuses. For the overseas students, some of them have a relatively strong desire to learn the native languages of China and Japan. When asked about the importance of Japanese, Informant No. 2 (Chinese) from Ito Campus said:

It is normal (Japanese is preferred on the signboard), because it is in Japan. As I have mentioned, for the most of the people, the staff, on campus are Japanese, and signs in Japanese are useful to guide them. And also staying in Japan, we are not Japanese, but we should learn some Japanese to have a very good life in Japan.

Most of the informants express their opinions that Japanese is important for campus signs. Because they are in Japan and some Japanese staff or students cannot understand English, they think that it is unreasonable to put English only on the signboards. One Japanese informant (No. 7 from Ito Campus) even states that “it is a must to put Japanese on the signboards” and suggests that if possible, four languages (Japanese, English, Chinese and Korean) should be used on the signboards, but at the very least two (Japanese & English) should be used, which is also the determination of some provincial and municipal regulations on signs in Japan. The tables below (Table 6-13 & Table 6-14) show that the importance

of Japanese is not quite strongly emphasized by the overseas students on Ito Campus, compared with the native Japanese students. That might result from some students' complaints about the inadequacy of the translation of Japanese signs on campus, especially for those who can read neither Japanese Hiragana nor Japanese characters at all.

However, on BLCU Campus, the role of Chinese is cherished just as much by overseas students as by native Chinese. The most likely reason is because of the overseas students' status or their purpose for coming to China, for many of them come to learn Chinese language. As I explained, the TCFL Center of BLCU, which sponsors a number of scientific research projects of state and provincial level, is the only research base at the state level in the field of Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language in China.

Table 6- 13: Attitudes towards the Importance of the State Language of Japan		
Group	Native students	Overseas students
Average number	1.7	2

(1: Very important, 5: Not important at all)

Table 6- 14: Attitudes towards the Importance of the State Language of China		
Group	Native students	Overseas students
Average number	1.9	1.8

(1: Very important, 5: Not important at all)

The native Japanese students and overseas students attached equal importance to the role of English on Ito Campus (see Table 6-15), which also echoes the high percentage (46%) of Japanese-English bilingual signs. Most of the informants also stress the position of English on campus signs and state that it is unrealistic to put all the languages of the world on the signboards, but as a

common language, English is the best choice, and the display of English signs makes the foreign students feels comforted and accommodated. Informant No. 6 (Ito Campus) noted that:

It [English] is important in terms of usefulness. Many non-Japanese speakers have a greater command of English than that of Japanese, having aside [except for] Korean and Chinese students, I think.

Still, there is an expectation that English should be used on campus and elsewhere in Japan, because of the establishment of the process of globalization and the launch of the Global 30 Project that welcomes foreign students worldwide. Given the status of English nowadays, it is not surprising that some informants mention that Japanese and English are enough for them to get information on campus signboards.

On BLCU Campus, native Chinese students, who express concern for the convenience of life and study of overseas students, emphasize the importance of English more than overseas students (see Table 6-16). This also shows their eagerness to create an international atmosphere on campus. However, the overseas students are comparatively less eager to see English, probably because of their common goal of learning Chinese in BLCU. Nevertheless, the vital role and salient position of English on signs are highly valued by students from both campuses.

Table 6- 15: Attitudes towards the Importance of English (Ito Campus)		
Group	Native students	Overseas students
Average number	1.7	1.7

(1: Very important, 5: Not important at all)

Table 6- 16: Attitudes towards the Importance of English (BLCU Campus)		
Group	Native students	Overseas students
Average number	1.6	2

(1: Very important, 5: Not important at all)

The tables below (see Table 6-17 & Table 6-18) present the students' evaluations of the importance of other foreign languages used on campus boards. It is found that on both campuses, the native students value the foreign languages much more highly than the foreign students, especially, the use of Chinese and Korean on Ito Campus and the use of Korean on BLCU Campus. As most of the informants mentioned, the languages chosen and used on the campus signboards should be based on the number of the students. The often-used non-English foreign languages Chinese and Korean on Ito Campus, and Japanese and Korean on BLCU Campus, and this conforms to the students' choices in the survey. But some foreign students on Ito Campus still hold that it is needless to display Chinese on the signboards, because they can read and mostly understand the Chinese characters. Nevertheless, displaying multilingual signs has been a trend and a fact on campus. The informant No. 4 from Germany (Ito Campus) said:

They (multilingual signs) are very useful for international visitors and should be used throughout campus for navigation (e.g. to indicate the affiliation of a building). This is especially important since Kyushu University is one of the more prominent Japanese universities and supports many international collaborations.

Some students regard French as “meaningless” and “not helpful”.

Informant No. 2 from Ito Campus states that if French is used for the name of a restaurant on campus, it is more acceptable than used in the signboards providing directing information. So it seems the traditional French nomenclature still works on campus. All in all, according to the questionnaire and interview surveys, importance has been attached to four languages on Ito Campus and three languages on BLCU Campus, and the multilingual campus is favored by most of the students.

Table 6- 17: Attitudes toward the Importance of Non-English Foreign Languages (Ito Campus)		
Group	Native students	Overseas students
Chinese	2.4	3.1
Korean	2.9	3.5
French	3.2	3.9

(1: Very important, 5: Not important at all)

Table 6- 18: Attitudes towards the Importance of Non-English Foreign Languages (BLCU Campus)		
Group	Native students	Overseas students
Japanese	3.4	3.7
Korean	2.5	3.3
French	3.2	3.7

(1: Very important, 5: Not important at all)

6.5 Discussion and Concluding Remarks

This chapter interprets the practical construction of campus linguistic landscape and how the students who live in it respond to the multilingual campus. The geosemiotic notions substantiate the descriptive analysis of campus linguistic landscape. So far, the current study has examined the campus linguistic landscape at three stages and found: first, in China, national language policies implicitly give agreement to the use of foreign languages on signboards; in Japan, it is local governments or organizations that first accept and regulate the use of foreign languages in signs, which stimulates the central government to make more plans or regulations for the display of multilingual signs. Moreover, provincial or municipal regulations specify how foreign languages should be used on signboards and promote the use of foreign languages in the public spheres, and there is no written guidelines for the display of campus signs in the two universities, but there are constant efforts from the staff and students who work for displaying signs. Second, the salience and visibility of different languages in the campus signboards confirm the supremacy of native languages and promotes status of foreign languages as well. Third, there is eagerness among students for adopting foreign languages on campus signs, which indicates their affirmative attitudes towards the multilingual campus.

At the first stage, in the exploration of languages policies of China and Japan, this study discusses the language laws and regulations or language planning regarding signs. The policy-making is regarded as a “political” dimension (Trumper-Hecht, 2010) derived from Lefebvre’s (1991) notion of “conceived” space, where the policy makers’ ideologies are reflected. Bearing a multilingual and multi-ethnic background, China and Japan have been making

great efforts to implement language policies for the common goal of establishing national identity. The standardization of Chinese has been one of the main language policies since the PRC's establishment. In Japan, the standardization of the language, which is based on the Tokyo dialect, was first put forward in 1916 (Gottlieb, 2005). Moreover, as Gottlieb (2011, p. 5) indicated, "The language is referred to by native speakers in two ways: when it is used by native speakers it is called *kokugo* (lit: the language of our country), but when it is taught to foreigners, it is called *nihongo* (lit: the language of Japan)..." The form and use of Chinese characters and Kana experienced several times of revisions in the 20th century. It was not until 1981 that the currently used List of Characters for General Use came into existence. Likewise, China, since the establishment of PRC, has worked on popularizing (standard Chinese) to consolidate its status as the national language. Although there are many dialect varieties in both countries, the use of *Putonghua* in China and *Kokugo* in Japan have been regarded as necessary for the media, education and so on, and thus basic capability in these dialects have been required.

For the languages used in signs, as mentioned above, there is a special Article in *The Law of the People's Republic of China on the Standard Spoken and Written Chinese Language* (Article 13, Chapter II) that stressed the status of Chinese. This Article, aiming at conferring standardized Chinese with an official status, authorized the adoption of foreign languages in signboards implicitly. According to my knowledge, there is no such law made in Japan, but the regulations at the provincial and municipal levels have pointed out the prominence of Japanese on the signboards in practical use and the status of foreign languages is promoted more than in China. The two countries, however,

also share a common goal of creating a prosperous tourist industry, which requires good language service. Gradually, those regulations exert influence on the use of foreign languages elsewhere in public spheres. One more consideration is the increasing number of immigrants or foreign visitors, who constitute a multilingual and multi-ethnic community temporarily or permanently. Thus the making of laws, regulations, manuals, guidebooks and rules is first for the purpose of meeting the needs of those communities.

Judging from the purpose of those laws or regulations concerning signs at different levels, it is found that being internationalized and showing it is the main goal of both countries, as globalization promotes the exchange of culture, travelling, trade and so on. Similarly, universities become important sites for study exchange. For example, the “Global 30” Project (Project for Establishing University Network for Internationalization) supported by the Japan government and a variety of overseas exchange programs sponsored by the Chinese government. So language for both study and life becomes a major concern for overseas students’ life. The establishment of Student Committee for Internationalization in Kyushu University that also works for the bilingualization of campus signs is a symbol of promoting internationalization. The formation of multilingual campus is thus stimulated. Therefore, foreign languages used on campus signs indicate to what degree the university is internationalized, and booming of foreign languages in signs also manifests commodification on university campuses.

At the second stage, from the survey on the construction of campus linguistic landscape, the official status of national languages (Chinese & Japanese) is confirmed in the highest frequency of occurrences (see Table 5-1 & Table 5-2).

On Ito Campus, Japanese is the most often used language, and on BLCU Campus, Chinese is the most often represented language in the campus linguistic landscape. The saliency of national language on campus signboards, as conveyed by the unilingual signs, reminds the readers what country they are in, which helps the signs accomplish the informing function. Being placed first in the top-down hierarchy, the national language proves its official status and power. The consistency in language policy and practice works as the principle for balancing powers in a multilingual environment.

As I observed, the “spatial practice” from the “physical dimension” demonstrates the distribution of languages on signboards. Among those foreign languages, English enjoys the highest presence in campus linguistic landscape. It is noteworthy that foreign languages are used for business on campus most. To explain this phenomenon, we need to borrow the notion of “indexicality” from Geosemiotics. Scollon and Scollon (2003, p. 211) develop this notion from Peirce’s concept in semiotics and refer it to “the study of the social meaning of the material placement of signs and discourses and of our actions in the material world.” This concept asks researchers to investigate signs within a particular “framed” and “situated” social context. In the discussion on functions of signs (section 4.6), I note that university campus is keeping “commodified space”, like city centers. The French-only sign found on Ito Campus is in the cafeteria that provides Western-style food, such as pasta and bread. Named in French, this shop elevates its status by equating itself with high quality and exotic flavor. Besides, on BLCU campus, some restaurants put English or Japanese elements for their nameplates or advertisements, which indicates that the traditional French nomenclature (a “status-enhancing embellishment”, as indicated by Macgregor,

2003) also works on campus. Functioning in this way, Scollon and Scollon (2003, pp. xi-xii) explained that “this is a fundamental basis of indexicality—the quality of language that it makes reference to things in the world by pointing to or locating itself on or in them and in doing so positions us within that world.” Therefore, the indexical nature of signs also echoes Landry and Bourhis’ notion of “symbolic” function.

At the third stage, the responses of the native and overseas students enrich the analysis of campus linguistic landscape from the “Third Dimension”, which is also regarded as “experimental” dimension derived from Lefebvre’s (1991) “lived space” that represents “inhabitants point of view” towards the linguistic landscape where they are living. Based on the questionnaires and interviews, it is found that a majority of the participants evaluate Japanese (average: 1.9) and Chinese (average: 1.9) as important languages on campus signs. The salient status of Japanese on Ito Campus is taken for granted by the native Japanese students and respected by the overseas students as well. The same is true of BLCU Campus. The official status has not been challenged by any other language groups on campus, moreover, a large number of students within this multilingual community have the desire to join the Japanese/Chinese group by learning Japanese/Chinese for purposes such as making their life convenient, finding a job, and so on.

This questionnaire survey indicates that there are differences between the students’ perceptions of the languages used on signs and the actual construction of campus linguistic landscape. Trumper-Hecht (2010, p. 245), who quoted Bauman (1997), claims, “the public space is experienced indirectly through preconceived ideas that people form in order to ‘map’ their relations

with other.” On BLCU Campus, the students expect a higher presence of Chinese-English signs, which reflects their awareness of the increasing foreign students or guests on campus. The students on Ito Campus understate the number of Japanese-English signs, which indicates the students feel stronger power from the dominant language group and make them realize how many efforts should be made for being internationalized. Moreover, despite the overwhelming use of bilingual signs, the students’ eagerness to add English can be observed.

The language policies or regulations regarding signs displayed in public places of both countries, from the very beginning, show their assumptions of the coexistence of different languages and give agreements to the adoption of foreign languages in public sphere. This situation differs a lot from the places often selected for linguistic landscape research. For example, in Quebec, which has been a site of linguistic conflicts, the language laws enacted since the early 1970s have been designed in order to promote the visibility of French in the public sphere and to exclude all other languages (Backhaus, 2009). On both campuses, the native students constitute an absolute larger portion of the number of the students, so it is reasonable to put the national language in a priority position. In addition, the language planning activities have explicitly encouraged the use of languages other than Japanese or Chinese. The saliency of native language is embodied in its prominent presence on the campus signboards, which are affirmatively accepted by both native and overseas students as well.

English shows the highest presence on campus. The original purpose of displaying the English signs is for helping foreign students, who also greatly favored the use of English on campus. As governments of both countries have encouraged policies of inviting more foreign students, English service is an

important preparation. There has been no mention of the adoption of English in the official political documents in China, but in recent years, its use is valued highly in the field of education and for the translation of international public relations messages. Similarly, Japan also regards English as the most important foreign language, stressing it in English education and international communication. For the native Chinese or Japanese students, English competence is important for them to receive higher education or in job hunting. They also hold a sense of being internationalized when English is used on campus signs. When asked about the opinion of the importance of English, the informants noted that, as a lingua franca, English is the most useful and appropriate language to be used on the signboards to serve the international students.

For the foreign students, it will make them pleased if their languages are used on the campus signboards. On Ito Campus, one informant even argued that, "If foreign languages other than English, Chinese or Korean are used, why don't they put my language there." In practice, it is unrealistic to put so many foreign languages on one signboard, and from the interview survey, it has been found that English is the most favored. One informant (No. 6 from Ito Campus) states, "It is not necessary to put English in the official signs, and official signs should use only [the] official language; or it is impossible to put English in official signs, although it is [would be] good [to include English]; a foreigner will always be a foreigner in Japan." From her statement, she keenly feels the unshakable position of the Japanese language, and feels a strong sense of her different identity as a foreigner, which makes the integration of foreign students like her into Japanese society more difficult. The necessity of putting Chinese and Korean on the

signboards of Ito Campus has been accepted by most of the participants. The use of French on signboards is generally taken as useless and incomprehensible, because students rarely understand French. But those signs indeed create an exotic atmosphere on campus, and one informant says he appreciates seeing a restaurant name in French, while he would not appreciate a notice in French. So the power of language for marketing also works here on campus. On BLCU Campus, given the comparatively large number of Korean and Japanese students, the university has established some corresponding facilities to enrich the students' lives, showing a concern and respect for them by displaying their languages there. However, as many of the foreign students come to BLCU with the purpose of learning Chinese, their attitudes understate and undermine to some extent the importance of the use of English, Japanese and Korean.

On both campuses in China and Japan, at least, three or more languages, work together to accomplish the various functions of campus signs, without challenging the status of official language, So far, those foreign languages have not posed a threat to the prestige of the national languages, because of which, Backhaus also noted (2009, p.167)) "government agencies on various administrative levels have found it easy to promote rather than ban the use of languages other than Japanese signs in Tokyo." Although in China and Japan, national language policies avoid giving official status to any foreign languages as the second language, they are promoted more in practical usage and the implementation process, as represented in the campus linguistic landscape, whose existence caters to both native and foreign students as well. In this chapter, the geosemiotic interpretation and code analysis of campus signs substantiates the sociolinguistic analysis of "Act Sequence", "Key" and

“Instrumentalities” of the “Speaking Model”. Moreover, the questionnaire and interview surveys demonstrate the “Norms of Interpretation”, which enriches our understanding of campus linguistic landscape.

CHAPTER 7 CONCLUSIONS

7.1 Summary of This Research Project

Bearing on the current language situations of China and Japan, this study examined the campus linguistic landscapes by a triangulation of research perspectives: the close examination of campus signs drawing on the sociolinguistic “Speaking Model” (in which Hymes’ “Norms” work as the “conceived space” of Lefebvre), case studies of the construction of campus linguistic landscapes (“spatial practice”), and questionnaire and interview surveys on students’ attitudes (“lived space”). Positioning linguistic landscape in the multilingual campus context, this study enriches people’s understanding of linguistic landscape research. In China, the process of globalization is accelerating. The fast change and development of the use of foreign languages in peoples’ daily lives are indicated in more and more scholars’ research interest and the constantly increasing number of studies on Chinese-English signs nationwide (as I summarized in Figure 2-2). Interest in English and bilingualism is on the rise in China, but the multilingualism in linguistic landscapes have been under-explored and thereby a gap between Chinese and international attention towards linguistic landscape has developed. Japan, however, as an emerging multilingual society, has been diligent in regulating and managing the usage of multiple foreign languages in public spheres, particularly in the capital Tokyo and places with active tourist industries. Although the national law does not endow any foreign language with an official status as the second language, the importance of those languages is valued greatly in their practical use.

This study, by introducing the semiotic background of linguistic landscape, investigated campus sign in terms of sociolinguistics and geosemiotics. It expands the definition and scope of linguistic landscape research, which have already drawn some researchers' attention (Itagi & Singh, 2002; Backhaus, 2007; Shohamy & Gorter, 2009). Given the multimodal and multi-faceted characteristics of signs that pose a challenge for linguistic landscape researchers, some problems come out, such as data collection, counting and categorizing signs, unit of analysis, research methodology, and theoretical support. This also explains why linguistic landscape research shows an interdisciplinary tendency at present. Concentrating on the university campuses makes the data counting and the classification of signs or the identification of genres of campus signs more feasible, and makes the unit of analysis more specific.

An overview of previous studies informs us that this new field of sociolinguistic research, arising from the places of linguistic conflicts, has drawn interest from scholars worldwide since the 1970s, and has become a popular topic in recent years. Moreover, the majority of those studies selected urban areas to investigate shop signs, advertisements, commercial signs and so on. Stimulated by the language situations and usage in other countries, I realize the gaps that exist in linguistic landscape research between China and other countries. In China, Chinese-English bilingual sign translation has been widely studied in the past ten years, while in other countries signs-related research takes a broader perspective through including the discussion of language policy and history, immigration, power relationships, ethno-linguistic vitality, and so on. With the rich experience of living on a multilingual and multiethnic university

campus, I start this research on campus linguistic landscape of both China and Japan, which also provides a new look at linguistic landscape and a comparative view with urban signs.

I focus on the public spaces and collected data on permanent and semi-permanent signs on both campuses. The physically identifiable sign space is the “unit of analysis”, which allows separate information to appear on one signboard. Based on Hymes’ “Speaking Model”, I first explore the “Norms” of linguistic landscape in terms of language policies or regulations concerning language usage in signs at various levels, identify twelve “Genres” of campus signs by dividing campus into different “Settings” (functional areas), explicate the complexity in agents, potential of being audience, and the existence of bystanders, and modify Lü’s classification into a new format to analyze their “Ends” (functions).

Incorporating the survey on the language usage on both campuses and Kress and Van Leeuwen’s (1998) work on the grammar of visual design and Scollon and Scollon’s work (2003) on Geosemiotics, this study interprets the importance of national languages in campus signboards, which is manifested not only in terms of political status, but also with respect to their visibility and saliency on the signs in the campus linguistic landscapes and in view of students’ attitudes. Besides, the status of foreign languages on signboard is promoted in both countries, which is validated in the locally designed regulations along with their importance in practical use. The geosemiotic analysis of the interaction of text and visual data and code preference, and the coding of campus signs further explicate the “Key”, “Act Sequence”, and “Instrumentalities” of the campus linguistic landscape.

7.2 Contribution of This Study

First, this study, focusing on university campuses, selects a new site to investigate the linguistic landscapes of China and Japan, which provides a comparative view with urban linguistic landscape. University campuses exclude large-sized billboards, prohibit the overwhelming spread of advertisements, and reduce the mess in the placement of signs. Moreover, expanding the scope of linguistic landscape research, this study adopts sociolinguistic and geosemiotic theories, which substantiates the descriptive analysis of campus signs and enriches our understanding of linguistic landscape. It is also important to note that this study is also a start to investigate the multilingual linguistic landscape of China, which calls for Chinese scholars' attention to this popular topic and more possibilities in studying signs.

Second, the questionnaire and interview surveys bring in the concern of psychological responses to the linguistic landscape, as many studies have called for interpretations of the linguistic landscape that take into account the psychological and visual perceptions of the sign readers (Gorter, 2006; Ben-Rafael, 2009; Shohamy & Gorter, 2009; Spolsky, 2009). This study, going beyond mere descriptive analysis of languages used in the linguistic landscape, meets the challenge faced by researchers who seek to collect data to analyze the opinions and thoughts of the sign readers towards the campus linguistic landscape, which addresses the gap in current linguistic landscape research.

Third, the sign readers' interpretation of language policy or regulations is explored. The foreign students' responses towards the construction of a multilingual campus also reflect their interpretations to the regulations on language use to a certain degree. Huebner (2009) claims that it is a challenge to

study how the people in a given linguistic landscape interpret the policies on language use in linguistic landscape research. This study, through investigating students' attitudes towards multilingual signs displayed in the linguistic landscape of campus by questionnaires, is an examination on sign readers' responses to the language policy. These findings in this study can work as a reference for further study.

Fourth, this study, with a synchronic record of the construction of the campus linguistic landscape, provides a basis for further comparative and diachronic studies in the future. The methodological design helps represent the richness and complexity of the study of language usage and choice in a multilingual community through exploring the language policies at different levels, linguistic landscape in practice and students' attitudes towards the multilingual campus. Moreover, it brings linguistic landscape research to the context of multilingual campus stimulated by the progress of internationalization, which differs from the concept of "tensions" or "conflicts" traditionally recognized in previous linguistic landscape research.

7.3 Limitations of This Study

This study restricts the research sites to the public sphere of campus, including cafeterias, library and gymnasium, where a large number of students, teachers and visitors gather. While the inside of the classroom buildings, experiment rooms and so on are left under-explored and each of these areas can be explored as an independent study to further understand the campus linguistic landscape. What's more, only signs in a relatively stable position are included for data collection, so other items, like personal notes or notices, and posters that

are easily removed and renewed, are neglected in this study. Since this research is synchronic in nature, which limits the representation of the language usage, so the dynamic linguistic landscape of campus is not captured in this study.

The participants and informants included in the survey are also limited to the multilingual communities on both campuses, which cannot represent the whole multilingual communities that live in China or Japan longer or permanently, and the immigrants who experience much language contact and change in the society. Due to the scale of the survey, the background and language capability of the participants are not regarded as variables that influence the attitudes. The attitudes of the larger minority language groups of Chinese and Koreans in Japan, and Korean and Japanese speakers in China are worthy of further investigation and will provide more general implications on the attitudes of the minority language groups of those countries.

A number of studies, which examined street signs and their linguistic content, have stated that there was more discernible language diversity on private signs than on public signs (Rosenbaum et al., 1977; Landry & Bourhis, 1997; Huebner, 2006). This study, however, does not categorize the data into public (official) and private (non-official), or top-down and bottom-up signs, because of the complexity in agents, as I argued in section 4.5. Besides, given the number of various genres identified on campus linguistic landscapes, along with the different designs of some artifacts and unique features of some signs, the large amount of campus signs restrict the observer from generalizing the variations of linguistic signs. Some creative usages in code changing and code mixing in campus signs still need further exploration.

7.4 Implications for Further Research

Initially, as indicated in Chapter 2, there is a gap in the interest of sign research between China and other countries, so I will make some suggestions for the future study of signs in China. First, unlike most international researchers, many Chinese scholars study “signs” or “public signs” from the point of view of Chinese-English translation. Internationally, however, signs are often included in the study of the linguistic landscape of a given place. The scholars have different focuses when studying signs: Lü (2005) stresses the “information” and their correctness in the sign, but Landry and Bourhis (1997) put “language” and their saliency in a given linguistic landscape at the first place. How signs in different languages are displayed in the public sphere of a place is the subject of ongoing research. In China, although there are a large number of reports on signs across the country, the general situation of the linguistic construction of signs is still under-explored. As more and more foreigners travel to and settle down in China temporarily or permanently, special communities in which people are speaking different languages are coming into existence. Therefore, a survey on the languages used in the linguistic landscape of China is an urgent task facing Chinese scholars. Moreover, it is also a way to document how China is developing and changing economically, socially, politically and culturally.

Second, the understanding of “signs” plays an important role in deciding the sample selection. To a certain extent, sign research is conducted in a narrow sense in China, compared with studies conducted in other countries, including Japan. So far, the signs surveyed in China are almost all “official” or “public” signs, and they rarely study private or non-official signs, whose meaning is not restricted to advertisements. Besides, the general language choice, usage and

change in the public sphere are rarely investigated. Landry and Bourhis in their seminal paper (1997) make a distinction between private and government signs, and it is appropriate to conclude that the current focus of many studies conducted in China is “government signs” or “public signs”, such as signs found in scenic spots, parks, bus or train stations, hospitals, and so on. In addition, there are some studies about advertisements conducted by Chinese scholars, in particular from the perspective of their translations. In some studies, although signs on storefronts and business institutions have been analyzed from the perspective of correcting mistakes in translations, it is not sufficient understanding of language contact and usage in a place as a whole. Besides, advertising signs are usually excluded in most of the studies on public signage in China. Internationally, sign research tends to include all possible elements the researcher can find in a certain place, and the general landscape of signs is depicted. Concentrating on the theme of translation, signs of different types often are scattered in different studies for the purpose of generating applicable translation rules, in which the purpose of these studies transfer from signs themselves to the theoretic establishment of translation methods. Therefore, a more comprehensive and systematic data collection becomes a necessary way to study signs in a broader sense and from different perspectives in China.

Third, Chinese-English bilingual signs are usually the focus of study in China, but the increasing use of multilingual signs calls for researchers' attention. So far, most of these studies discuss the Chinese-English translation of signs in China. It is common to see bilingual signs when one walks around anywhere in China; for example, bus stations, parks, main streets, downtowns and so on. Although some scholars notice that many foreign languages have been used on

signs, for example, Sun (2009) indicates, English, Japanese, Korean, Spanish and so on are more widely used in Wen Zhou, the multilingual signs, however, have rarely drawn any attention from Chinese scholars, nor are they valued as important research subjects. Besides, Huang & Du (2009) even criticize the use of multilingual signs in the public places, because they think that those multilingual signs just show a shallow attempt by local people to appear internationalized. It is obvious that the multilingual signs are underappreciated or even neglected in the previous studies in China. As a matter of fact, linguistic landscape has been used as a tool or a new approach to study multilingualism (Gorter, 2006). Considering that multilingual signs are found in the linguistic landscape of China as well, although not as common as in countries where there are large numbers of immigrants or linguistic conflicts, it is worthwhile trying to study those signs in China.

Bearing on this study, it is found that the linguistic landscape research can benefit a lot from the examination of the language policy and how the intended readers interpret the policies or regulations. Spolsky (2009, p. 25) stated, "Awkwardly but attractively labeled "linguistic landscape", the study of public multilingual signage is developing into sub-field of sociolinguistics and of language policy." Moreover, Gottlieb (2009) noted, "language policy is much more than merely a collection of documents informing government practice. It is informed by and encapsulates the entire linguistic culture of a society, reflecting its specific beliefs about language." Huebner (2009) claimed that collecting qualitative data from the inhabitants of a given linguistic landscape to understand the "Norms of Interpretation" of the readers of signs was a challenge to the current state of linguistic landscape research, and this call was answered

in some following research that investigated the perceptions or attitudes of inhabitants. For example, Aiestaran, Cenoz and Gorter (2010) focused on perceptions of languages on signs and the stated preferences of the local inhabitants of the city of Donostia-San Sebastian; Trumper-Hecht (2010) analyzed Jew's and Arabs' perceptions and attitudes toward the visibility of Arabic in mixed cities in Israel; and Garvin (2010) studied the individual cognitive and emotional responses to the linguistic landscape in urban communities of Memphis, Tennessee. In China, a survey had been done by the *Research Center of Public Sign Translation of Beijing International Studies University* to investigate the degree of satisfaction of foreign readers with the current state of public signs' translation in China in 2007, which is a large-scale and fairly comprehensive survey across the country. However, the emphasis is still on translation, so the response to a multilingual place or community is still a new field to explore. Similarly, in Japan, a larger scale of survey will be of great importance to understand the attitudes of the residents of the multilingual community, which is also an untapped area.

Finally, linguistic landscape is not only an approach to explore multilingualism, but it can also be used as a tool for second language acquisition, which is suggested by interview informants who stated that they learn Japanese/Chinese from the signboards, especially the place names. Cenoz and Gorter (2008) also suggested that the multilingual and multimodal linguistic landscape provide authentic text that can be used as potential and additional sources for L2 input, which also help enhance the pragmatic competence. However, as previous studies indicate there are mistakes in the translation in the public signs, therefore putting this potential source into learning practice needs

more careful examination. In addition to this, the genres of campus signs identified in the current study exhibit the complexity of the signs in their linguistic forms, which requires the researchers to go further to study the nuanced differences among different genres and their context.

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APPENDIX I: Questionnaire A

Questionnaire Survey (Native Students on BLCU Campus)

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this survey about students' attitudes towards the campus signs. The questionnaire is part of my PhD Research on the Linguistic landscape of China and Japan. Your answers will remain confidential.

Section A: General Questions

1. **Gender:** Male Female 2. **Department:** _____
3. **Nationality:** _____ 4. **Mother Language:** _____

5. Current Status

Undergraduate Research Student Graduate Doctorate Postdoctorate

6. How many **foreign languages** can you read? ____; They are: _____

Section B: Students' Attitudes

1. Which **language(s)** do you think is used **most often** on the **signboards** of BLCU Campus?

Chinese English Chinese & English Others _____

2. What **language(s)** do you think are **important** for the students' **study** on BLCU Campus?

Chinese English Japanese Korean Spanish others _____

3. What **language(s)** are **important** for the students' **daily life** on BLCU Campus?

Chinese English Japanese Korean Spanish others _____

4. Do you want to add **another foreign language** (besides English, Japanese and Korean) into the **signboard** on BLCU Campus?

Yes, I do. I want to add _____ No, I don't.

5. If you get a chance to **choose and order the languages** used on the **signboards** of BLCU Campus, you will arrange them as:

1. _____ 2. _____ 3. _____ 4. _____ 5. _____ 6. _____

Please circle the number you want to choose. For example: **1** **2**

6. Did the **multilingual signboards attract your attention** when you first came to BLCU Campus?

Very much 1 2 3 4 5 Not at all

7. How important is it to put **Chinese** on the **top** of the **signboard**?

Very important 1 2 3 4 5 Not important at all

8. Do you think you are **relevant to** the **information** in the **English-only** signs?

Very much 1 2 3 4 5 Not at all

9. Do you think you are **alienated (separated)** from the **English-only** signs on BLCU Campus?

Very much 1 2 3 4 5 Not at all

10. What is your opinion on using **English** on the signs of BLCU Campus?

Very important 1 2 3 4 5 Not important at all

11. What is your opinion on using **Japanese** on the signs of BLCU Campus?

Very important 1 2 3 4 5 Not important at all

12. What is your opinion on using **Korean** on the signs of BLCU Campus?

Very important 1 2 3 4 5 Not important at all

13. What is your opinion on using **French** on the signs of BLCU Campus?

Very important 1 2 3 4 5 Not important at all

14. What's your general feeling about the **multilingual signs** displayed on BLCU Campus?

Very good 1 2 3 4 5 Very bad

15. Are there any **additional opinions or thoughts** you want to share?

Thank you very much for your cooperation!

APPENDIX II: Questionnaire B

Questionnaire Survey (Overseas Students on BLCU Campus)

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this survey about students' attitudes towards the campus signs. The questionnaire is part of my PhD Research on the Linguistic landscape of China and Japan. Your answers will remain confidential.

Section A: General Questions

1. Gender: Male Female 2. Department: _____
3. Nationality: _____ 4. Mother Language: _____

5. Current Status

Undergraduate Research Student Graduate Doctorate Postdoctorate

6. How many **foreign languages** can you read? ____; They are: _____

Section B: Students' Attitudes

1. Which **language(s)** do you think is used **most often** on the **signboards** of BLCU Campus?

Chinese English Chinese & English Others _____

2. What **language(s)** do you think are **important** for the students' **study** on BLCU Campus?

Chinese English Japanese Korean Spanish others _____

3. What **language(s)** are **important** for the students' **daily life** on BLCU Campus?

Chinese English Japanese Korean Spanish others _____

4. Do you want to add **another foreign language** (besides English, Japanese and Korean) into the **signboard** on BLCU Campus?

Yes, I do. I want to add _____ No, I don't.

5. If you get a chance to **choose and order the languages** used on the **signboards** of BLCU Campus, you will arrange them as:

1. _____ 2. _____ 3. _____ 4. _____ 5. _____ 6. _____

Please circle the number you want to choose. For example: **1** **2**

6. Did the **multilingual signboards attract your attention** when you first came to BLCU Campus?

Very much 1 2 3 4 5 Not at all

7. How important is it to put **Chinese** on the **top** of the **signboard**?

Very important 1 2 3 4 5 Not important at all

8. Do you think you are **relevant to** the **information** in the **Chinese-only** signs?

Very much 1 2 3 4 5 Not at all

9. Do you think you are **alienated (separated)** from the **Chinese-only** signs on BLCU Campus?

Very much 1 2 3 4 5 Not at all

10. What is your opinion on using **English** on the signs of BLCU Campus?

Very important 1 2 3 4 5 Not important at all

11. What is your opinion on using **Japanese** on the signs of BLCU Campus?

Very important 1 2 3 4 5 Not important at all

12. What is your opinion on using **Korean** on the signs of BLCU Campus?

Very important 1 2 3 4 5 Not important at all

13. What is your opinion on using **French** on the signs of BLCU Campus?

Very important 1 2 3 4 5 Not important at all

14. What's your general feeling about the **multilingual signs** displayed on BLCU Campus?

Very good 1 2 3 4 5 Very bad

15. Are there any **additional opinions or thoughts** you want to share?

Thank you very much for your cooperation!

APPENDIX III: Questionnaire C

Questionnaire Survey (Native Students on Ito Campus)

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this survey about students' attitudes towards the campus signs. The questionnaire is part of my PhD Research on the Linguistic landscape of China and Japan. Your answers will remain confidential.

Section A: General Questions

Gender: Male Female **Department:** _____

Nationality: _____ **Mother Language:** _____

How many **foreign languages** can you read? ____; They are: _____

Section B: Students' Attitudes

1. Which language(s) do you think is used most often on the signboards of Ito Campus?

Japanese English Japanese & English Others _____

2. What language(s) do you think are important for the students' study on Ito Campus?

Japanese English Chinese Korean Spanish French
 Malay Indonesian German Hindi others _____

3. What language(s) are important for the students' daily life on Ito Campus?

Japanese English Chinese Korean Spanish French
 Malay Indonesian German Hindi others _____

4. Do you want to add another foreign language (besides English, Chinese and Korean) into the signboard on Ito Campus?

Yes, I do. I want to add _____ No, I don't.

5. If you get a chance to choose and order the languages used on the signboards of Ito Campus, you will arrange them as:

1. _____ 2. _____ 3. _____ 4. _____ 5. _____ 6. _____

Please circle the number you want to choose. For example: **1** **2**

6. Did the **multilingual signboards attract your attention** when you first came to Ito Campus?

Very much 1 2 3 4 5 Not at all

7. How important is it to put **Japanese** on the **top** of the **signboard**?

Very important 1 2 3 4 5 Not important at all

8. Do you think you are **relevant to the information** in the **English-only** signs?

Very much 1 2 3 4 5 Not at all

9. Do you think you are **alienated (separated)** from the **English-only** signs on Ito Campus?

Very much 1 2 3 4 5 Not at all

10. What is your opinion on using **English** on the signs of Ito Campus?

Very important 1 2 3 4 5 Not important at all

11. What is your opinion on using **Chinese** on the signs of Ito Campus?

Very important 1 2 3 4 5 Not important at all

12. What is your opinion on using **Korean** on the signs of Ito Campus?

Very important 1 2 3 4 5 Not important at all

13. What is your opinion on using **French** on the signs of Ito Campus?

Very important 1 2 3 4 5 Not important at all

14. What's your general feeling about the **multilingual signs** displayed on Ito Campus?

Very good 1 2 3 4 5 Very bad

15. Are there any **additional opinions or thoughts** you want to share?

Thank you very much for your cooperation!

APPENDIX IV: Questionnaire D

Questionnaire Survey (Overseas Students on Ito Campus)

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this survey about students' attitudes towards the campus signs. The questionnaire is part of my PhD Research on the Linguistic landscape of China and Japan. Your answers will remain confidential.

Section A: General Questions

Gender: Male Female **Department:** _____

Nationality: _____ **Mother Language:** _____

How many **foreign languages** can you read? ____; They are: _____

Section B: Students' Attitudes

1. Which language(s) do you think is used most often on the signboards of Ito Campus?

Japanese English Japanese & English Others _____

2. What language(s) do you think are important for the students' study on Ito Campus?

Japanese English Chinese Korean Spanish French

Malay Indonesian German Hindi others _____

3. What language(s) are important for the students' daily life on Ito Campus?

Japanese English Chinese Korean Spanish French

Malay Indonesian German Hindi others _____

4. Do you want to add another foreign language (besides English, Chinese and Korean) into the signboard on Ito Campus?

Yes, I do. I want to add _____ No, I don't.

5. If you get a chance to choose and order the languages used on the signboards of Ito Campus, you will arrange them as:

1. _____ 2. _____ 3. _____ 4. _____ 5. _____ 6. _____

Please circle the number you want to choose. For example: **1** **2**

6. Did the **multilingual signboards attract your attention** when you first came to Ito Campus?

Very much 1 2 3 4 5 Not at all

7. How important is it to put **Japanese** on the **top** of the **signboard**?

Very important 1 2 3 4 5 Not important at all

8. Do you think you are **relevant to the information in the Japanese-only signs**?

Very much 1 2 3 4 5 Not at all

9. Do you think you are **alienated (separated)** from the **Japanese-only signs** on Ito Campus?

Very much 1 2 3 4 5 Not at all

10. What is your opinion on using **English** on the signs of Ito Campus?

Very important 1 2 3 4 5 Not important at all

11. What is your opinion on using **Chinese** on the signs of Ito Campus?

Very important 1 2 3 4 5 Not important at all

12. What is your opinion on using **Korean** on the signs of Ito Campus?

Very important 1 2 3 4 5 Not important at all

13. What is your opinion on using **French** on the signs of Ito Campus?

Very important 1 2 3 4 5 Not important at all

14. What's your general feeling about the **multilingual signs** displayed on Ito Campus?

Very good 1 2 3 4 5 Very bad

15. Are there any **additional opinions or thoughts** you want to share?

Thank you very much for your cooperation!

APPENDIX V: Interview A

Interview (BLCU Campus)

Section A: General Questions

1. Name: _____ 2. Nationality: _____
3. Gender: Male Female
4. Age: Less than 20 Between 21 and 30 Between 31-40 More than 41
5. Current Status
- Undergraduate Research Student Graduate Doctorate Postdoctorate
6. Department: _____ 7. Mother Language: _____
8. How many **foreign languages** can you read? ___; They are _____
9. Length of Stay: How long have you been in China? _____ Month(s)
10. Chinese Competence
- | | | | | | |
|------|------------------------------------|-------|------------------------------------|-------|------------------------------------|
| Read | <input type="checkbox"/> Excellent | Speak | <input type="checkbox"/> Excellent | Write | <input type="checkbox"/> Excellent |
| | <input type="checkbox"/> Good | | <input type="checkbox"/> Good | | <input type="checkbox"/> Good |
| | <input type="checkbox"/> Fair | | <input type="checkbox"/> Fair | | <input type="checkbox"/> Fair |
| | <input type="checkbox"/> Poor | | <input type="checkbox"/> Poor | | <input type="checkbox"/> Poor |

Section B: Questions

1. Did the **multilingual signs** attract your attention when you first came to BLCU Campus? Please explain why or Why not?

2. What do you think of the display of **multilingual signs** on BLCU Campus?

3. Which **language(s)** do you think is used **most often** in the signs on BLCU Campus? Please explain why?

4. Do you want to add **another foreign language** to the signboard on BLCU Campus? If yes, what is it and why? If no, please explain why?

5. If you get a chance to **order the languages** used on campus how will you arrange them on the signboards (You can add additional languages)?

1. _____ 2. _____ 3. _____ 4. _____ 5. _____

6. What is your opinion on the use of **Chinese** on the signs of BLCU Campus?

7. What is your opinion on the use of **Chinese-only sign** on BLCU Campus?

8. What is your opinion on the use of **English** on the signs of BLCU Campus?

9. What is your opinion on the use of **Japanese, Korean or French** on the signs of campus?

10. In your opinion, what can the use of **English** on the signs of BLCU Campus **symbolize**?

11. Do you think **English** should be used in **official signs**? Please explain why?

12. In your opinion, what can the use of **French** in campus signs **symbolize**?

13. What do you think of the **translation** of the signs displayed on campus?

14. What is your general **feeling** about the **multilingual signs** displayed on BLCU Campus??

Thank you very much for your participation in this interview.

APPENDIX VI: Interview B

Interview (Ito Campus)

Section A: General Questions

1. Name: _____ 2. Nationality: _____
3. Gender: Male Female
4. Age: Less than 20 Between 21 and 30 Between 31-40 More than 41
5. Current Status
- Undergraduate Research Student Graduate Doctorate Postdoctorate
6. Department: _____ 7. Mother Language: _____
8. How many **foreign languages** can you read? ___; They are _____
9. Length of Stay: How long have you been in Japan? _____ Month(s)
10. Japanese Competence
- | | | | | | |
|------|------------------------------------|-------|------------------------------------|-------|------------------------------------|
| Read | <input type="checkbox"/> Excellent | Speak | <input type="checkbox"/> Excellent | Write | <input type="checkbox"/> Excellent |
| | <input type="checkbox"/> Good | | <input type="checkbox"/> Good | | <input type="checkbox"/> Good |
| | <input type="checkbox"/> Fair | | <input type="checkbox"/> Fair | | <input type="checkbox"/> Fair |
| | <input type="checkbox"/> Poor | | <input type="checkbox"/> Poor | | <input type="checkbox"/> Poor |

Section B: Questions

1. Did the **multilingual signs** attract your attention when you first came to Ito Campus? Please explain Why or Why not?

2. What do you think of the display of **multilingual signs** on Ito Campus?

3. Which **language(s)** do you think is used **most often** in the signs on Ito Campus? Please explain why?


4. Do you want to add **another foreign language** to the signboard on Ito Campus? If yes, what is it and why? If no, please explain why?

5. If you get a chance to **order the languages** used on campus how will you arrange them on the signboards (You can add additional languages)?

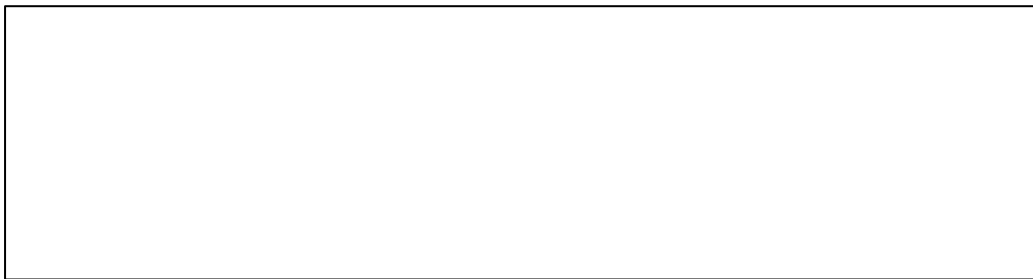
1. _____ 2. _____ 3. _____ 4. _____ 5. _____

6. What is your opinion on the use of **Japanese** on the signs of Ito Campus?

7. What is your opinion on the use of **Japanese-only sign** on Ito Campus?



8. What is your opinion on the use of **English** on the signs of Ito Campus?



9. What is your opinion on the use of **Chinese, Korean or French** on the signs of campus?



10. In your opinion, what can the use of **English** on the signs of Ito Campus **symbolize**?



11. Do you think **English** should be used in **official signs**? Please explain why?

12. In your opinion, what can the use of **French** in campus signs **symbolize**?

13. What do you think of the **translation** of the signs displayed on campus?

14. What is your general **feeling** about the **multilingual signs** displayed on Ito Campus?

Thank you very much for your participation in this interview.