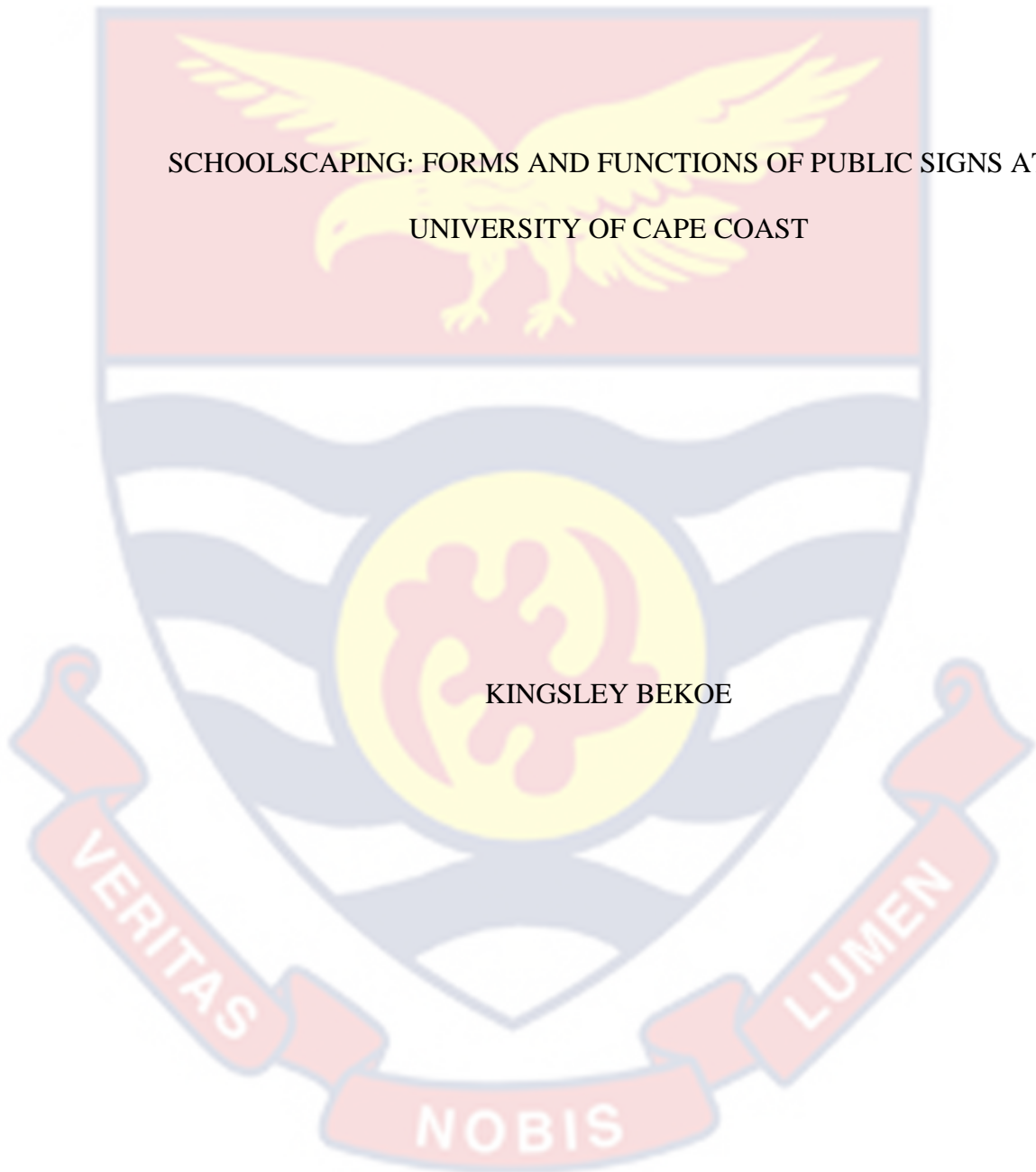UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

SCHOOLSCAPING: FORMS AND FUNCTIONS OF PUBLIC SIGNS AT

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

KINGSLEY BEKOE

2023

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

SCHOOLSCAPING: FORMS AND FUNCTIONS OF PUBLIC SIGNS AT

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

BY

KINGSLEY BEKOE

Thesis submitted to the Department of English of the Faculty of Arts, College
of Humanities and Legal Studies, in partial fulfilment for the requirements for
the award of Master of Philosophy degree in English Language.
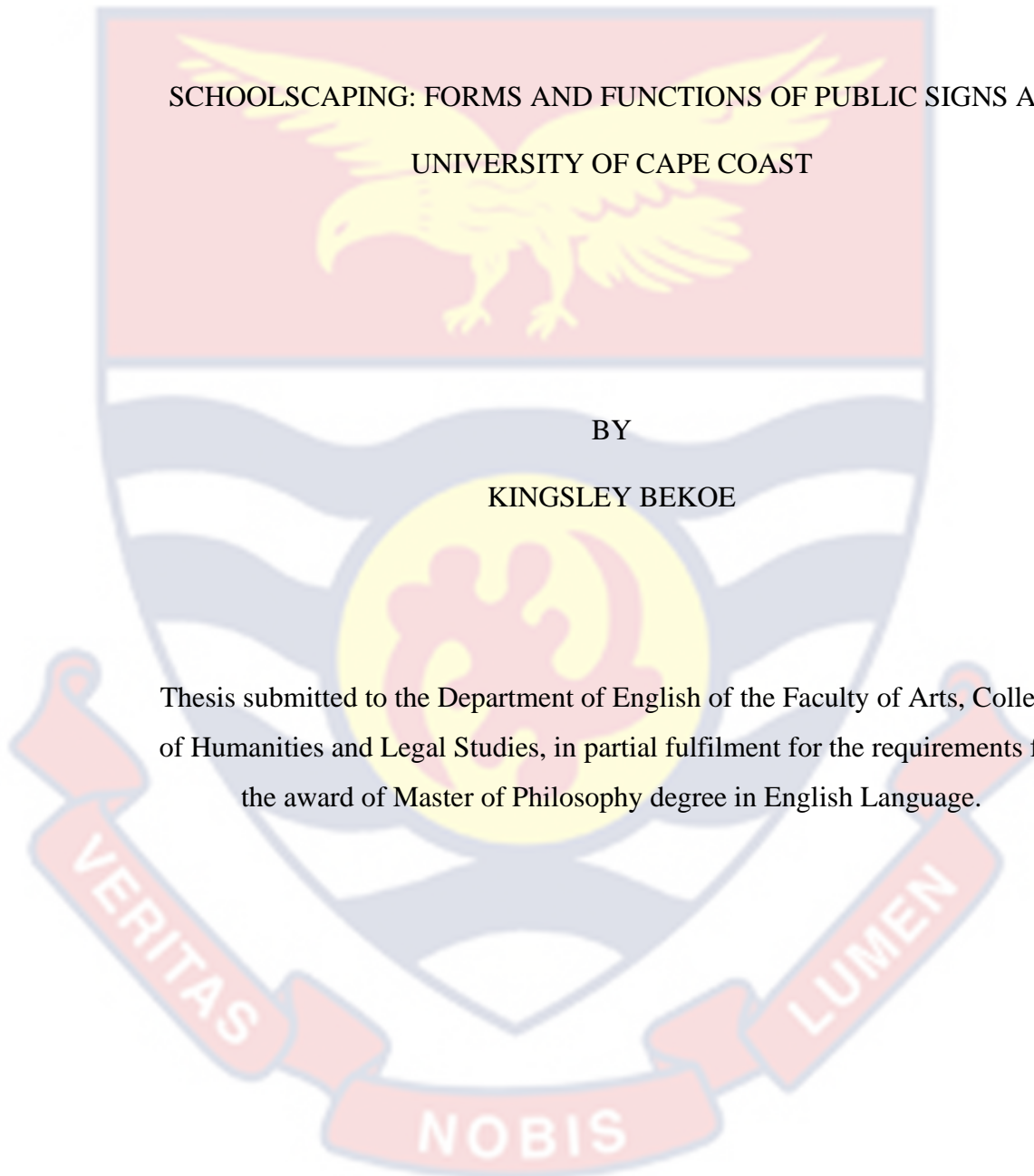
JULY 2023

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original work and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.
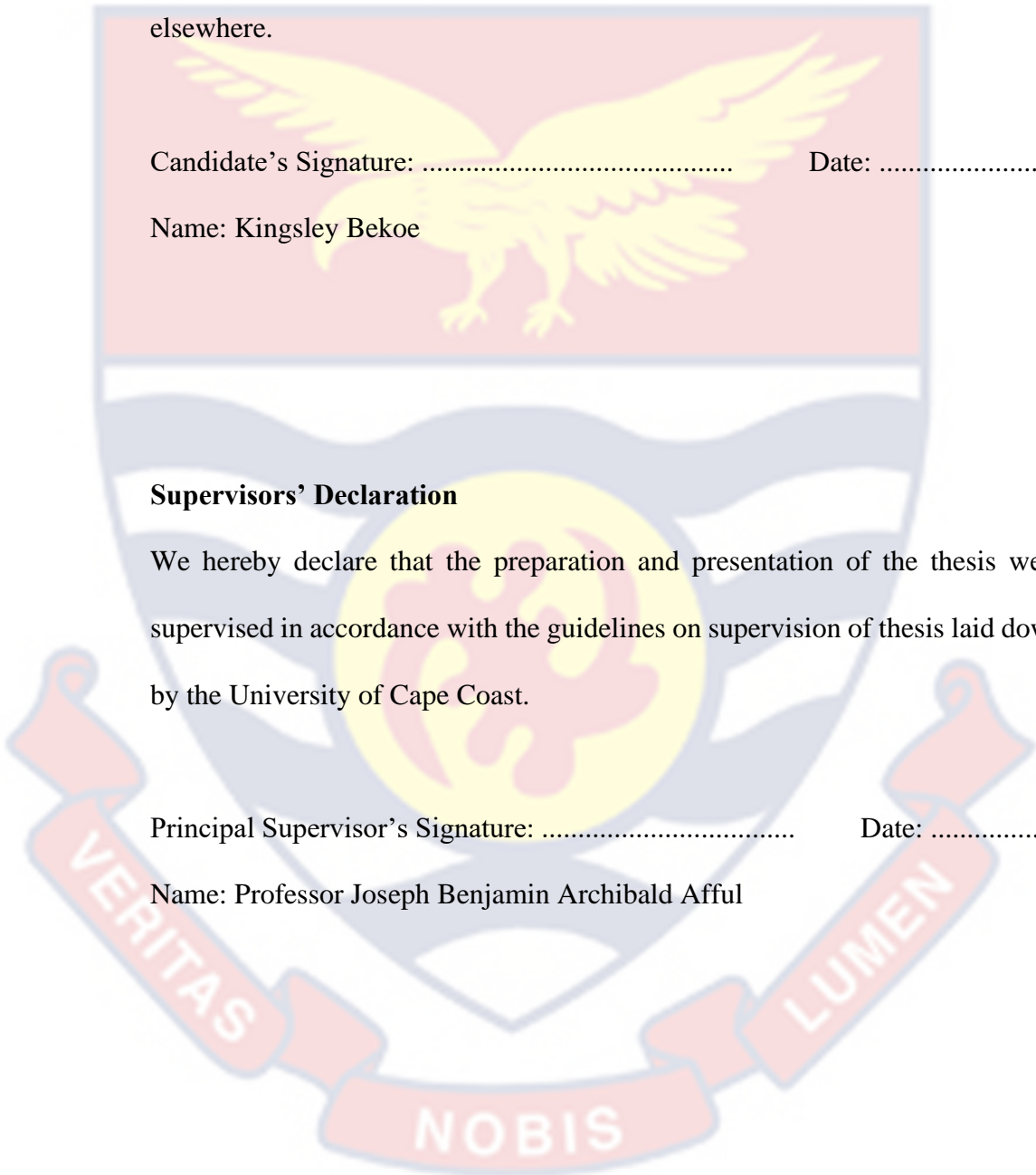
Candidate's Signature: ....   Date: ....

Name: Kingsley Bekoe

Supervisors' Declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Principal Supervisor's Signature: ....   Date: ....

Name: Professor Joseph Benjamin Archibald Afful

ABSTRACT

Language has made it possible for humans as individuals and groups to communicate in diverse forms among themselves. The public space has been one of the key avenues for such an interaction. University of Cape Coast (UCC) authority, through the public space communicates several messages or information to its members. The present study aimed to investigate the Linguistic Landscape (LL) of UCC focusing on the range of public signs and their communicative functions, drawing on Scollon and Scollon's (2003) Geosemiotics or The Place Semiotics Theory and Landry and Bourhis' (1997) Informational and Symbolic Functions of LL. Observations and picture taking were used to gather data within one month. Four hundred (400) photographs of public signs were taken on UCC campus. Using qualitative content analysis complemented by descriptive statistics, the study revealed names of public and private structures, navigational signs, notices, clothing and souvenirs as categories representing the range of public signs at UCC. Apart from the known informational and symbolic functions of LL, the study further revealed that these public signs performed identificatory, memorializing, directional, advertising/marketing/promotional, invitational, regulatory, and pedagogical functions. Closely related to the second research finding was the multifunctional nature of these public signs.

The findings of the study contribute to the scholarship on linguistic landscape in educational institutions (also referred to as 'schoolscape') and further research.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Thesis writing is a very stressful work and it cannot be successful without the assistance of God and other people.

First of all, I acknowledge God's hand in starting and completing my thesis; this study would not have materialized without His mercies.

Second, I express my deepest gratitude to my supervisor, Professor J. B. A. Afful, for his unflinching support, guidance, and encouragement. I am also grateful to all the lecturers of the Department of English, University of Cape Coast (UCC), for their advice and support. I thank the administrative and library staff of the Department of English, UCC, for their assistance during the course of the study.

Third, I also thank my family and friends for their spiritual backing and financial assistance. A special gratitude goes to my parents, Mary Abu and Stephen Amoah respectively, who through tough and discouraging times reminded me to remain focused. Their love and support meant a lot to me. I would like to express my profound gratitude to my brother, Collins Adu for his financial support. A loving 'thank you' goes to my wife Comfort Oppong for her support and understanding. Again, I thank my children, Benedict Adu-Kwasi Bekoe and Benita Takyiwa Bekoe for their spiritual support.

Finally, I thank everyone who assisted in making this academic dream a reality.

DEDICATION

To my mother, Mary Abu and brother, Collins Adu

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

x

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1. 0 Introduction

This study is concerned with Linguistic Landscape (hereinafter, LL) of University of Cape Coast (henceforth, UCC) with the view of showing and understanding public signs present at UCC. This chapter highlights the background to the study, motivations of the study, statement of the problem, research objectives, research questions, significance of the study, delimitations of the study, and organization of the thesis.

1. 1 Background to the Study

In this recent era of globalization, communication is crucial in forging socialization among people. Thus, the interest in diverse means of communication has increased significantly due to technological advancement. Language is, therefore, not restricted to only one mode say spoken language. Technological advancement has made it possible to integrate different semiotic resources to communicate particular meanings. For instance, signs are mostly composed of different semiotic resources such as text, image, and colour. These semiotic resources collectively play significant roles in the meaning making of a sign (image) (Ndimulunde, 2019).

Language is key in human's existence. It is the very essence of humanity and an effective tool for socialization. Our ability to perform effectively and efficiently in nearly every area of life, whether as individuals or as members of a social group, is essentially dependent on our linguistic abilities. Through language, the sociolinguistic make-up of a specific group of people is understood and known (Landry & Bourhis, 1997). Also, Leeman and Modan

1

(2010) explain that language is one of the essential ways in creating a strong relationship among neighbouring ethnic groups. Language is not limited to the function of helping to institutionalize neighbourhoods as a community; it relevantly plays a key function in the commodification of the environment (Leeman & Modan, 2010).

In 1694, the British introduced English into Ghana to help produce clerks and interpreters for Britain's mercantile activities (McWilliam & Kwamena-Poh, 1978; as cited in Ahwa, 2014). Soon after independence in 1957, the Ghanaian political leaders, realizing that there were several different indigenous languages in the country, adopted English as an official language in order to prevent the artificial boundaries among the people and to generate anti-ethnic feelings among the citizens of Ghana (Ahwa, 2014). Ahwa (2014) further explains that the institutionalization of English as an official language plays a number of significant roles such as English being a 'lingua franca' that is, a system for mutual understanding among people who speak different languages; English as the official language of administration, commerce, government and of various learned professions among others and English being used a medium of instruction (Ahwa, 2014; Sarfo, 2012).

According to Sarfo (2012), the existence of more than one language in Ghana has necessitated the use of one common language or another for official and/or national purposes. Sarfo (2012) posits that, according to the language policy of Ghana, English is the official language (the language of education, law, media, government and administration) since the introduction of formal education amidst the various language policy reforms in the country since 1951. Not long ago, "the government of Ghana modified the policy and made English

2

as the medium of instruction at all levels of formal education (*Daily Graphic*, May 17, 2002"; as cited in Sarfo, 2012, p. 87). Owu-Ewie (2006) also confirms that English is used as the official language and medium of instruction in all the schools, from upper primary school level to all higher levels of education. The need to study English is, therefore, crucial for students as well as all sectors of the population since it is the principal medium of teaching and learning, for official work and for international communication. It is in the light of this that University of Cape Coast (henceforth, UCC) uses English as the medium of instruction and for its official duties. However, it is important to indicate that not all the members of the (UCC) community are able to interpret the diverse signs accordingly, since not every member has basic understanding or a fair command of the English language which for used for writing the signs. Scholars such as Sarfo (2012) and Sackey (1997) mention that English is used as the medium of instruction at the tertiary level. Hence, before deciding to apply for admission, one must be able to at least read and write English.

English, since the 1950s, has advanced to be a global lingua franca since it is spoken by majority people mostly in business transactions, in education and other areas. This has further created an enabling environment for the preponderance of English as a lingua franca, the language of international education, scientific communication, and research publication (Pérez-Llantada, 2015; Seidlhofer, 2005). Pérez-Llantada (2015) argues that the quest for the internationalization of English has triggered its use even in non-Anglophone higher education contexts in order to enhance international collaboration and gain institutional visibility, recognition and prestige, among other gains. The predominance of English in research dissemination/publication practices

3

emanates from the implementation of national-based research assessment policies which concede greater significance to publications in high-impact factor English-medium journals than those in national journals (Pérez-Llantada, 2015).

However, Motta-Roth and Herbele (2015) are of the view that the challenges of learning and writing in an additional language have been the struggle of children in English as a Second Language (ESL) contexts like Ghana. Also, migrant communities and other marginalized groups also encounter difficulties in learning English as a new language, which is frequently the choice for many schools targeting migrants even in non-Anglophone contexts, like Japan and Korea. They explain that through genre research and its application, this complex sociocultural context which brings out critical issues is being addressed.

All public universities in Ghana such as University of Cape Coast, University of Education-Winneba and University of Ghana- Legon, therefore, use English as a medium of instruction, as required by the language policy of the country (Adika, 2012; Owu-Ewie, 2006; Sarfo, 2012). University of Cape Coast, which is the research setting of this study, thus, conducts its activities in English and its signs also written in English. This is due to the fact that members of the university community have different linguistic backgrounds; therefore, English is used as a lingua franca to mitigate the barrier among the different languages that people speak.

Over the past decades, a new branch of Sociolinguistics called Linguistic Landscape Studies (LLS) has emerged in several universities worldwide, in an attempt at developing accurate and thorough surveys of urban multilingualism.

4

LLS investigate the presence of publicly visible bits of written language: billboards, road and safety signs, shop signs, graffiti and other inscriptions in the public space, both professionally produced and grassroots (Blommaert & Maly, 2015). According to Anderson, Wiredu, Ansah, Frimpong-Kodie, Orfson-Offei and Boamah-Boateng (2020), the identity of a particular person or group of people can be identified through language; thus, the written language. Studying the written language can help to know many things about a group of people. Anderson et al. (2020) further explain that one component of the written language is what is seen in the public domain: on road signs, street names, names of buildings, billboards, among others. Road signs, street names, names of buildings have been publicly displayed all on the campus of UCC and the study of these linguistic objects is what some scholars such as Landry and Bourhis (1997) in Sociolinguistics refer to this written aspect of language in the public space as 'Linguistic Landscape'. Landry and Bourhis' (1997) and other researchers and scholars' definitions of LL are discussed in Chapter Two.

1. 2 Motivations for the Study

The motivations of this study emanate from a group presentation made in a Sociolinguistics class on LL as well as a study conducted by Anderson's et al. (2020). I was impressed by the group as they demonstrated to the class how language can be portrayed publicly in diverse forms to serve a number of purposes. Also, Anderson's et al. (2020) study presented a number of significant manifestations of language use on the Central Business District of Accra. This study and others, such as Akoto and Afful (2021); Backhaus (2007); Landry and Bourhis (1997); Owusu-Afriyie (2020) and Pavlenko (2010) generally provided a fair view on how language is used in the public domain with respect to the

prioritization of some languages over others emanating from relevant factors such as commercialization.

Importantly, given the absence of a study of such a key public university in Ghana, I developed an interest to investigate the LL of UCC in order to gain some understanding and knowledge of language use in the public space.

1. 3 Statement of the Problem

Studies on Linguistic Landscape (LL) have recently attracted the interest of researchers, especially in Sociolinguists. Several studies have been conducted to investigate the LL of cities in multilingual societies (e.g., David & Mana, 2015; Fakhiroh & Rohmah, 2018) and LL of tertiary educational institutions across the globe (e.g., Adjei, 2014; Abongdia & Foncha, 2017; Davids, 2017; Draper, 2010; Haynes, 2012; Jane-Francis & Foncha, 2014; Korang, 2011; and Quaye, 2011). Again, studies on LL of rural areas such as Banda and Jimaima (2015), Loth (2016), and Du Plessis (2012) seem to be few.

Geographically, regarding the distribution of Linguistic Landscape Studies (LLS) across the globe, it appears Ghana is under researched. In Ghana, studies on LL such as Akoto and Afful (2021), Akoto (2021), Anane (2019), Anderson et al. (2020), Owusu-Afriyie (2020), and Nyame and Tomekyin (2018) are limited to urban areas, neglecting rural areas and educational institutions in the country. However, the few studies (e. g. Adjei, 2014; Davids, 2017; Quaye, 2011) conducted in educational institutions, especially University of Cape Coast mainly focused on billboards and notices which do not provide a true reflection of the entire signages at the university, so it seems no study has been conducted to investigate the LL of University of Cape Coast.

6

Therefore, this study aims to partially fill the gap by investigating the entire signages at University of Cape Coast (UCC). This insight obtained will generally add to the existing literature on LL, both locally and globally, schoolscape in particular.

1. 4 Research Objectives

This study aims to:

1. Describe the range of public signs present at University of Cape Coast.

2. Investigate the communicative functions of the public signs in University of Cape Coast.

1. 5 Research Questions

Accordingly, the study aims at answering the following questions:

1. What is the range of public signs present at University of Cape Coast?

2. What are the communicative functions of the public signs in University of Cape Coast?

1. 6 Significance of the Study

The current study contributes to the existing body of literature on LL. As no study has been conducted on LL of University of Cape Coast, examining the LL of UCC will help to appreciate how language is realized in the public space, especially in an educational institution. Globally, most of the studies on LL focus on urban areas (e. g. Anderson et al., 2020; Backhaus, 2007; and Gorter, 2006, Quayson, 2014) with little attention paid to rural areas (e. g. Loth, 2016) and educational institutions (Yavari, 2012; Adjei, 2014), making the literature on LL in rural areas and educational institutions quite few. Similarly, in Ghana most of the studies focus on urban areas, without much attention paid to rural areas and educational institutions. So, examining the LL of University

7

of Cape Coast will provide material evidence to demonstrate that the study of LL is not mostly limited to non-academic and urban areas. This study, therefore, to a large extent will be a pioneering study to have examined the entire signages at UCC since the few LL studies conducted at UCC mainly focused on some aspects of the LL of the university.

Theoretically, Scollon and Scollon (2003) state that the meaning of signs is place determined. It means that LL of a particular area helps to determine the preference of one language over the other and other salient features such as font type, font size, and colour which contribute to the importance attached to either the language or the semiotic resources on a sign. Applying this theory in this study contributes to the universality of the theory for its applicability in a different context. Every part of the world is occupied with different signs and the use of languages on these signs shows the linguistic backgrounds of the people. Moreover, this study has implication for Landry and Bourhis' (1997) informational and symbolic functions of LL in the sense that this study has expanded the main functions of LL proposed by Landry and Bourhis (1997).

This study will be a source of reference to scholars and researchers interested in studying related aspects of LL of University of Cape Coast (UCC) since the present study examined the range of public signs present at UCC and the functions of the signs. This study, therefore, provides useful information about the LL of UCC.

Finally, the findings of this study have implication for language use in the public space, particularly in tertiary educational institutions. The members of a university community, especially lecturers and students speak different indigenous languages such Fante, Akan, and Ewe and other foreign languages

8

like French and Chinese apart from English, so inscribing more than one language on the signages at UCC will be laudable in order to provide diverse meanings to the messages on the public signs.

1. 7 Delimitations of the Study

This section describes the boundaries for the study. The following issues will be considered in the study:

Firstly, there are about seventy-six (76) tertiary educational institutions – public universities, technical universities, college of education (both private and public), public specialized (professional teaching institutions), private tertiary institutions (universities, university colleges, tutorial colleges, and distance education institutions) and colleges of agriculture and nursing and midwifery training colleges (public and private), among others, in the country, Ghana, which provide specific programmes to students. However, this research will be limited to a public university in Ghana (Arthur & Arthur, 2016).

Secondly, there are so many public universities in Ghana such as University of Ghana, Legon, Kwame University of Science and Technology (KNUST), University of Education, Winneba, and University of Cape Coast (UCC) (Armah, 2022). Nonetheless, this study is limited to UCC, which is located in the Central Region. There are several public signs communicating particular messages to the members of the university community, especially lecturers and students. Importantly, the choice of UCC for the study is motivated by the proximity of data and as a student of the university I have adequate information about the university, especially, the various signs on the university's campus. Each of the signs, whether indoor or outdoor/public signs, is placed at vantage locations for everybody to easily see. These numerous signs

9

provide a window into the sociolinguistic make-up of the university. The words 'outdoor' and 'public' are used interchangeably in this study to refer to signs that are easily visible to everybody. I paid attention to public signs as a result of time constraint and the purpose of this study.

In this study, however, the public signs in UCC Hospital were not included in the scope of the study because of the difficulty I encountered in accessing the signs at the place.

1. 8 Organization of the Thesis

The thesis is organized into five chapters. Chapter One deals with the description of the background to the study, an introductory note on the meaning of LL and different realizations of language use in the public space, UCC; followed by the motivations of the study. It also presents the statement of the problem, research objectives, research questions, delimitations of the study, significance of the study, and organization of the thesis. Chapter Two covers the literature relevant to the study. It focuses on the selected theories, some key concepts and previous studies on LL. Chapter Three describes the methodology. This highlights the research design, the setting, sampling procedure, data collection procedure, data set, analytical framework and data analysis procedure, reliability, validity and ethics. Chapter Four deals with results and discussion of the data collected in order to answer the research questions posed in the study. Finally, Chapter Five deals with the conclusion to the entire research. This summarizes the findings, draws conclusion, and makes suggestions for further studies.

1. 9 Chapter Summary

Chapter one has provided a brief background to establish the foundation for the study, motivations of the study, statement of the problem, research objectives, research questions, delimitations of the study, significance of the study, and the organization of the thesis.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2. 0 Introduction

This chapter presents a literature review on the field of study: linguistic landscape. The chapter is divided into three parts. The first part is a discussion based on the theories adopted for this study: Scollon and Scollon's (2003) The Place Semiotics Theory. This is followed by Landry and Bourhis' (1997) Functions of LL. Key concepts such as functions of language, linguistic landscape and semiosis are considered in the second part. Also, previous studies on LL, from both African and non-African contexts, are presented, particularly on tertiary educational institutions.

2. 1 The Place Semiotics Theory

Scollon and Scollon (2003) propounded The Place Semiotics Theory. The theory focuses on a semiotic system of inscriptions that encompasses all that printers are aware of with regard to the significance of selecting and positioning a typeface for a book or what designers are aware of with regard to the use of a specific typeface and colour scheme for an advertisement. Their primary interest is the display of language in the physical world, and to them, the use of inscription encompasses all systems of meaning that are founded on the physical materiality of language (but also other coding systems) in the world. Usually, the materiality of the language is realized in the code preference of the languages used.

Code preference describes how languages are chosen, how they are graphically represented, and how multiple languages are arranged within a single sign to reflect the geopolitical world. In a bilingual or multilingual

12

culture, the interaction between two or more languages can occasionally become competitive. If this happens, one language may occasionally be given precedence over the others, depending, among other things, on the national ideology and language policy. Sometimes the issue of inconsistencies arises when the actual practice does not reflect the language policy of the area (Haynes, 2012).

According to this theory, inscription refers to the font size, style and colour used to represent a particular language on the signage. The font size, style and colour influence the understanding of a particular sign. If two or more font sizes are chosen in producing a sign, it implies some of the linguistic items appear more significant than the others.

Emplacement refers to where signs are physically placed: top, middle, left, bottom or right. Where a particular semiotic resource or mode is placed or positioned on a sign determines its prominence with respect to the intention of the sign producer. In the Ghanaian society, for instance, a semiotic resource, especially an image of more importance, is normally placed at the top or right of a sign (Williams, 2016). This implies that Ghanaians 'read' signs either from the top or from the right. Usually, images are positioned in the middle of sign in order to foreground some linguistic items.

The meanings of signs can be inferred from the context in which they are used. This idea contends that the placement of visual pictures determines their meaning. In this way, the choice of languages, how they are visually represented, and where they are placed on signs, all affect how signs are understood. It means that the theory provides an understanding of the significance of public signages to the inhabitants of an area.

13

Ultimately, the theory concerns the underlying factors which determine the production of signs. The meaning of a sign is realized if people are able to interpret it accordingly. Scollon and Scollon (2003) suggest that if the sociolinguistic background of the in-groups is not given consideration in sign production, the potential meaning will not be realized. They further indicate an action's exact location in the public space affects a significant portion of its meaning. Due to that Geosemiotics is a place-based semiotic interpretation that examines where signages have been positioned and what they imply in certain contexts.

The research questions of this study concern the range of signs present at UCC and the communicative functions of the public signs. The public signs at UCC manifest in diverse forms because of certain determining factors such as the culture of the in-group people inhabiting a particular place. Also, the forms of the public signs influence the communicative functions; therefore, the application of Scollon and Scollon's (2003) theory was helpful.

Consequently, the application of The Place Semiotics Theory provides a theoretical lens in explaining and understanding the public signages at UCC. The theory mostly concerns the material realization of languages in the public space; hence, the suitability of the theory.

2. 2 Informational and Symbolic Functions of Linguistic Landscape (LL)

Linguistic landscape (LL) serves a number of functions to the society. For the purpose of this section, informational and symbolic functions of LL are explained since these functions serve as the fundamental knowledge to the understanding of the functions of LL, as found in Landry and Bourhis (1997).

14

According to Landry and Bourhis (1997), the informational function of LL deals with the distinctive marker of the geographical territory inhabited by a given language community; thus, LL serves to inform in-group and out-group members of the linguistic features, territorial limit and language boundaries of the region they have entered. Also, the common occurrence of a specific language on public signs serves informational function inasmuch as it indicates that the language in question can be used to communicate and obtain services within public and private establishments located in the pertinent territory.

LL can also provide knowledge about the sociolinguistic composition of the language groups living in a particular territory (Landry & Bourhis, 1997). For instance, public signs can be unilingual, bilingual and multilingual; thus, reflecting the diversity of the language groups present in the given territory. Importantly, LL's most fundamental informational purpose concerns the fact that specialized information is displayed on a particular sign (functional), and that it helps to define linguistic boundaries. LL offers details on the sociolinguistic make-up of different groups in the area as well as the power and status dynamics among them. Scollon and Scollon (2003) point out that the informational function also establishes a language expectancy by describing the language or languages that one might anticipate being utilized in other domains in a certain place. The gap between expected language use and actual language use, however, tends to widen as the status and roles of the local languages become more erratic. LL instead reflects the linguistic resources that are especially used in public spaces, not the language repertoire of a particular community (Ben-Rafael et al., 2006; Extra & Barni 2008). Additionally, the

15

LL's coherence (or lack thereof) reveals the degree of divergence between the official and *de facto* language policies (Loth, 2016).

With respect to the symbolic function of LL, generally, the in-group language on street signs represents the vitality or strength of one's own language group in terms of institutional and demographic control in comparison to other language communities in an intergroup context (Landry & Bourhis, 1997). Landry and Bourhis (1997) add that the choice of message, and more specifically, the language used on public signage, is referred to as the symbolic function of the LL. Power relations and identity are reflected in the symbolic function of LL. The inclusion or removal of languages in the LL is a reflection of power relations. Attachment to a certain identity might influence language choice as well. In order to exert sociopolitical control, groups or individuals must manage the speech in that area; thus, language policy, whether official or unofficial language can help to influence the use of language (Scollon & Scollon, 2003). Those in positions of authority can more readily control the official signs domain and utilize it to convey their ideological beliefs, whilst the private domain can use LL for protest by using or banning particular languages (Ben-Rafael et al., 2006).

Since LL is a language policy tool, Shohamy (2006) approaches this issue from the premise that the presence or absence of languages conveys precise messages about attitudes toward particular languages and language groups. Landry and Bourhis (1997) emphasize that LL makes use of languages that help the group using the language have a strong social identity, which helps the group's ethnolinguistic vitality.

16

Both the informational and symbolic functions of LL play significant roles in almost every LL of an area. These functions particularly establish the basis of the functions of public signages which constitute the data of the current study.

2. 3 Key Concepts

This section explains some key concepts such as 'functions of language', 'linguistic landscape', 'semiosis', to augment the theoretical perspectives presented in this study.

2. 3. 1 Functions of Language

Before discussing the functions of language proposed by scholars such as Jacobson and Halliday, a brief explanation of language is presented, after which I highlight its functions.

Language, be it spoken, written or computer-mediated, helps humans to cooperate, express themselves, and manipulate objects in their environment. Language is used in doing several things such as transacting businesses, planning meals and vacations, and debating in politics. It is also a systematic means of communicating thoughts through the use of sounds or conventions and symbols (Korang, 2011). Montgomery (1995) explains language as a set of interlocking relations in which linguistic forms take on the meaning it does, by virtue of their place within a total system of signs. Also, Ambarita (2018) presents language as the use of systems of units, which in combination, provide meaningful whole.

In this study, as I have already indicated in the Chapter One, I consider the written aspect of language, particularly the aspect which is used in the public space where signs and symbols, for example, are used for communication.

17

According to Asdar (2017), "knowing the function of language includes its purpose, its use, and what it does". (2017, p. 9).

Jacobson in Korang (2011) proposes that language performs six functions: Referential, Emotive, Conative, Phatic, Metalingual, and Poetic. The referential function concerns context and describes a situation, objects or mental state. The descriptive statements of the referential function consist of definite descriptions and deictic words, objects or mental state. The emotive or affective function deals with expressions that express the addresser by the use of interjections. However, the conative function addresses the addressee directly and this is illustrated by vocatives and imperatives. The poetic function focuses on a message for its own sake and is the operative function in poetry and slogans. The phatic function is realized in greetings, evoking language use for the sake of interaction. Lastly, the metalingual or the metalinguistic or the reflexive function is the use of language to describe or discuss itself.

In Mwinlaaru (2012), Halliday and his colleagues (e.g., Halliday & Hassan, 1976; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004), also propose three metafunctions that language simultaneously performs in every text. These are ideational, interpersonal and textual functions. These three metafunctions have been popular and influential in many studies regarding analysis of language functions from different domains similar to Jacobson's (1960). The functions were developed from the earlier functions which Halliday (1973) identified. Halliday (1973) states that language performs seven functions: Regulatory, Interactional, Representational, Personal, Imaginative, Instrumental and Heuristic. Halliday's regulatory function is similar to Jacobson's (1960) conative function, in that, they both seek to influence the behaviour of others to perform an action. He

18

used terms such as persuading, commanding and requesting to explain his regulatory function (2003). The representational function concerns how a language is used to exchange information. The personal function of language is used to express personal preferences, identity, feelings, emotions, reaction of the speaker and others. This function bears some resemblance to emotive or affective functions proposed by Jacobson (1960). When a language is used to create imaginary systems or ideas and to tell stories, jokes and others, it is called imaginative function. The instrumental function is used to denote what people want or it expresses a wish. Lastly, the heuristic function deals with how the environment is explored through language (as cited in Simanjuntak & Manik, 2013).

Considering the second research question of this study, some aspects of the functions of language proposed by Jacobson (1960) and Halliday (1973) were helpful too. This provided a basic understanding of how language is used in different contexts to perform significant functions. For the purpose of the present study, I was influenced more by Jacobson's (1960) functions than Halliday's functions of language and, more importantly, by the two main functions of LL which Landry and Bourhis (1997) had propounded.

2. 3. 2 Linguistic Landscape

In an attempt to either define or explain the term "Linguistic Landscape", some scholars, for instance, Landry and Bourhis (1997) provide what is called the "Listing definition" while others such as Draper 2010; Lestari (2019) provide "Explanatory definition". Whether the former or the latter, each definition provides a fundamental understanding of the meaning of LL.

19

Ultimately, any of the definitions emanates from how a scholar understands the term and the availability of signs at a place.

The word 'landscape' is historically rooted in Dutch to mean "tract of land" and in English as "a painting depicting scenery on land" (Gorter, 2006, p. 83). Gorter (2018) believes that the second part of the word "landscape" has attracted several creative ideas from different researchers across disciplines to propose various forms of "scapes" such as 'schoolscape', 'skinscape', 'cityscape', and 'ruralscape' (e. g. Brown, 2005; Shohamy & Gorter, 2009). Despite the numerous terms proposed by scholars and researchers, the term 'linguistic landscape' dominates.

Landry and Bourhis (1997, p. 25) first introduced the term "linguistic landscape". They explained it as "the language of public road signs, advertising billboards, street names, place names, commercial shop signs, and public signs on government buildings and how they combine to form the linguistic landscape of a given territory, region or urban agglomeration". This definition has been fundamental in several LL studies: Draper (2010), Gorter (2006), Haynes (2012), and Jane-Francis and Foncha (2014). Also, linguistic landscape is the "visibility and salience of languages on public and commercial signs in a given territory or region" (Landry & Bourhis, 1997, p. 23).

Linguistic landscape is—linguistic items that mark the public space (Ben-Rafael, Shohamy, Amara, & Trumper-Hect, 2006). More specifically, 'LL' refers to all the linguistic elements that can be seen in a certain area of the public sphere (Cenoz & Gorter, 2008; as cited in Mahemuti, 2018). Ben-Rafael believes that linguistic landscape refers to anything that characterizes the public item from road signs to private names of streets, shops or schools, and these

20

items are important in helping visitors and residents to develop a picture of a certain place, and distinguish it from other places (2009). Gorter (2006, p. 2) explains that LL research is concerned with "the use of language in its written form in the public sphere". He adds that LL consists of all visual forms of language presented in the public space at a certain geographic area. This definition encompasses all the visible signs, be it top-down or bottom-up, found at a particular area. Moreover, the visibility and prominence of languages on public and commercial signs in a territory or region is referred to as linguistic landscape (LL). The first concepts pertaining to the idea of linguistic landscape originated in the field of language planning (Landry & Bourhis, 1997).

Another form of 'scape' that plays a pivotal role in the present study is 'schoolscape'. This is due to the fact that the present study is situated in a tertiary educational institution. The visible language in an educational or school setting is termed 'schoolscape'. Studies on schoolscape were pioneered by Brown (2005), who analyzed the images, artifacts, and languages that were present in the hallways, and inside the classrooms of an Estonian school. Schoolscape embodies studies on LL conducted in universities, colleges, senior high schools, basic schools and others (Adjei, 2014; Brown, 2005; Gorter, 2018; and Legge, 2016). Educational institutions such as the elementary or primary, and kindergarten schools have on their campuses a lot of signs, especially graffiti (Dressler, 2015; Kretzer & Kaschula, 2021; Laihonen & Tódor, 2017; and Szabó, 2015). For instance, Kretzer and Kaschula (2021) investigated the language policy and schoolscape in South Africa and established that there are diverse school language policy documents which account for the different realizations of language use in the various schools in South Africa. Therefore,

21

these scholars have investigated how the various signs contribute to or facilitate the teaching and learning at the elementary and kindergarten schools and how language is presented in the public space. Aside this considerable number of studies on schoolscape in the elementary and kindergarten schools, Adjei (2014); Draper (2010); and Yoel (2020), for example, present significant findings on schoolscaping at the tertiary levels but these studies are limited to some aspects such as billboards neglecting other signs like plagues, door name plates, parking lots among others.

Nonetheless, some scholars believe that 'scapes' are not only limited to 'landscape' and 'schoolscape' but other 'scapes' are proposed in order to present a wholistic understanding of the term. To this effect, skinscape being one of the 'scapes' is considered as the visible language on an individual's skin. Peck and Stroud (2015) and Harry (2018) are of the view that LL studies should include writings on the skin since people communicate several messages to the world through writing on the skin and not only through placards, billboards, posters, graffiti and others. 'Cityscape' or 'townscape' has to do with the visible language in the city or urban space. Due to factors such as multilingualism, commercialization, globalization, and internationalization, the city or urban public space is occupied with diverse communicative artifacts with different languages. Therefore, some researchers argue that the inclusion of cityscape as a variant of LL is laudable (Anderson et al., 2020; David & Manan, 2015; and Fakhiroh & Rohmah, 2018). Lastly, ruralscape is the visible language in the rural area. Similarly, LL studies should involve the material presentation of language in the rural areas since the public spaces of these areas are occupied

22

with varied signs communicating significant messages to the public (Loth, 2016 and Du Plessis, 2012).

Considering the aforementioned definitions, I find Landry and Bourhis' (1997) definition of LL as appropriate for this study due to the nature of the data of this study. Thus, the first research question of the present study concerns the range of public signs; therefore, the listing definition is appropriate to aid in the categorization. Hence, this study considers the listing definition by Landry and Bourhis (1997), since it helps in placing the study in the right context. Also, the present study prefers 'schoolscape' to the other 'scapes', because the setting of this study is an educational institution, specifically University of Cape Coast (UCC).

2. 3. 3 Semiosis

The explanations of signs proposed by researchers and scholars provide insights to this study. However, in the area of semiosis, the explanation of signs by key scholars such as Ferdinand de Saussure, Charles S. Peirce, and Chandler Daniel are significant in the present study. I first explain the term 'semiosis' before considering the insights on signs from the aforementioned scholars.

Sebeok (2001) explains semiosis as the instinctive capacity of all living organisms to create and understand signs. According to Anward (1994), semiosis is the process whereby something comes to stand for something else, and, thus, acquires the status of sign. Notably, a sign can scientifically be studied; this is called 'semiotics' (de Saussure, 1857-1913; Peirce, 1931-1958). Semiotics, according to Curtis and Curtis (2011), is the study of signs and their meaning. How people communicate to other people through signs is explained and discussed in detail by these semioticians. Juffermans (2012) believes that

23

public signages are products of semiotic resources. In view of that providing an overview of semiosis is key in order to appreciate how public signs and semiosis are closely related.

Semiotics is the study of how meanings can be produced and communicated through different signs and symbols as part of our social life (Eco, 1976; De Saussure, 1983; as cited in Kucuk, 2015). Anward (1994) mentions that index, icon and symbol are the major classification of signs. Anward further explains that:

An index is a signifier which is spatio-temporally connected to its referent, the referent often being the cause of the signifier, as when smoke stands for fire, and tracks for an animal. An icon is a signifier that resembles what it stands for in some respect. A symbol, finally, is a signifier which is only conventionally related to its object (1994, p. 3).

Sometimes things and concepts may not be physically present for our senses to perceive, signs allow us to refer to them. For instance, when we say or hear the word *cat* the image of the animal in question comes instantly to mind, even if the actual animal is not around for us to perceive with our senses. The thing to which a sign refers is known as referent (Danesi, 2004).

As discussed by de Saussure, a sign comprises the signified which is the actual thing or action referred to and the signifier which is the symbol used to represent the actual thing or action. For instance, in spoken and written language, the relation between the sign's signified and signifier is arbitrary. This means that there is no direct connection between the concept of a book and the sound or appearance of the word "book" (Beebe, 2003). The signified and the signifier are socially specific and, depending on geographical difference

24

signifiers, could have arbitrary meaning. It is essential to mention that the subject matter of semiotics is signs. In Berger (2014, p. 24), Peirce explains signs as something interpretable as saying something about something. He categorized signs into icons, indexes, and symbols where "icons signify by resemblance, indexes signify by cause and effect, and symbols signify on the basis of convention". In short, ''anything can be a sign as long as someone interprets it as 'signifying' something—referring to or standing for something other than itself'' (Chandler, 2002, p. 13).

In the area of LL, the explanation of signs bears some resemblance to what Saussure, Peirce, and Chandler proposed. At a very simple level, Draper (2010) defines signs as something that signifies something. Signs or anything that can be explained as standing for something other than itself are powerful "mediational means" as they carry several important messages in the act of protest (Scollon, 2001, p. 4). According to Lestari (2019), a sign is something that serves as a guide on how to accomplish something or get somewhere, and an advertisement billboard seeks to get attention from viewers.

Since the focus of this study is public signs, Lestari's (2019) definition is appropriate and significant to it. He defines public signs as markers that are contained in products, rules, places or other concepts, and they also appear in advertising and marketing as a commercial context that aims to get the attention of the products or business (Lestari, 2019). Spolsky and Cooper (1991) identify eight major categories of signs: street signs, advertising signs, warning signs or prohibitions, building names, informative signs, commemorative plaques, signs which label objects, and graffiti (Spolsky & Cooper, 1991). The word 'public' is used in this study to refer to visible signs.

25

Spolsky and Cooper (1991) outline three conditions of signage. The first is that signs are written in languages that people know; secondly, signs are posted with the expectation that people will understand them, and lastly, signs appear in a language that people wish to be identified with. Shohamy (2010) adds that signs indicate which languages are locally relevant or in the process of becoming relevant. Jing-Jing (2015) suggests that signs in urban areas have essentially contributed to elements which make the city stylish, modern and cosmopolitan. LL, in whatever form, can be categorized into top-down and bottom- up signs. These explanations of signs together with what Saussure, Peirce, and Chandler proposed provide understanding to the term regarding what can be considered a sign from different contexts, especially LL studies. To this end, I explain the categories of signs in the area of LL in the next section.

In LL studies, Landry and Bourhis (1997) distinguish between private and governmental signs. Private signs include commercial signs on storefronts and business institutions (such as retail stores and banks), commercial advertising on billboards, and advertising signs displayed in public transportation and on private vehicles. Government signs, on the other hand, refer to the public signs produced by national, regional, or municipal governments in the following domains: road signs, place names, street signs, and building names.

Government and private signs fall into the two main categories of LL, which are also known as top-down and bottom-up signs. Those given by national and public bureaucracies, public institutions, signs on public areas, public announcements, and street names are referred to as top-down or government signs. Contrarily, bottom-up or private signs are used to describe

26

items released by certain social actors, business owners, and organizations, such as store names, signs on buildings, and personal announcements (Ben-Rafael et al., 2006). According to Backhaus (2006), official signs communicate more power than unofficial signs. This means that, in the present study, the top-down signs include all the signs posted or erected by the university authority such as road signs, warning signs, names of buildings and the like, while the bottom-up signs include those which are not posted or erected by the university authority.

This study employs both categories of signs, top-down and bottom-up since UCC has on its campus both government and private signs which collectively communicate certain messages to its members. The terms 'public' and 'outside' are used interchangeably in this study.

2. 4 Previous Studies on Linguistic Landscape

Diverse studies have been conducted to investigate the LL of urban areas, rural areas, and tertiary educational institutions to find out how language is visually or materially presented. In what follows, I discuss LL studies conducted outside Africa, LL studies conducted in Africa, particularly Ghana, and LL studies on tertiary educational institutions.

2. 4. 1 Linguistic Landscape Studies Conducted outside Africa

In an attempt to appreciate studies on LL studies conducted outside Africa, the pioneering works by scholars such as Gorter (2006), Landry and Bourhis (1997), Spolsky and Cooper (1991), and Shohamy and Gorter (2009) are helpful in this study, particularly Landry and Bourhis' (1997) study. These studies have provided a widened understanding regarding how language is used in the public sphere of bilingual and multilingual societies. For instance, Gorter's (2006) study, specifically on the 'written form' of language in the

27

public space, and his edited papers on LL, have attracted the attention of other scholars and researchers to the notion of LL. Also, the idea that a given population can be identified through their use of language has necessitated the need to investigate into such assertion (Spolsky & Cooper, 1991).

Specifically, most LL studies have explored commercial zones; although researchers include governmental and private signs, they generally study areas with a large number of stores and restaurants, as these areas tend to display more material manifestations of language than primarily public sector or residential neighborhoods Gorter (2006). For instance, linguistic and visual information are processed and used by the people who come into contact with such information. Information on signs are rightly interpreted when the languages used on the signs are languages which speakers can read. This sometimes affects the perception and the attitude of speakers of a particular language, depending on the kind of interpretation given to the signs (Aiestaran, Cenoz & Gorter, 2010; Shohamy, Rafael & Barni, 2010).

The use of English in the public space, especially on shop signs cannot be over emphasized. Whether monolingual, bilingual, and multilingual signs, English usually dominates the other competing languages due to globalization, commodification and political interest (Bolton, 2012; Karolak, 2020; Lou, 2010; Shang & Guo, 2017). Sometimes the dominant use of English over the indigenous languages results from the prestige accorded it (Lai, 2013; Tan & Tan, 2015).

Multilingual societies, as also emphasized by Backhaus (2005); Blommaert et al. (2005); Scollon and Scollon (2003) present diverse meaning-making resources which help to fully appreciate how language is used in the

28

public space for a number of purposes. It is quite obvious that, in every multilingual context, there may be convergence and divergence with the language policy of the country with regard to language use in the public space (Han & Wu, 2020). In view of this, multilingualism and nationalism of indigenous languages in the public domain significantly impact the LL situation of the in-group people (e. g. Fakhiroh & Rohmah, 2018; Marten, 2010). Marten (2010), for instance, claims that the Latvian State is rapidly becoming multilingual with different languages; Latvian, English, Russian and other international languages found on signs, determined by people's attitudes and emotions towards the languages.

Regarding the nationalism of indigenous languages, Fakhiroh and Rohmah (2018) found that the LL of Sidoarjo City has Indonesian as the most noticeable language on signs. This stems from the fact that the in-groups adhere to the language policy of the country. Adhering to the use of native or indigenous languages on both the top-down and bottom-up preserves or promotes national identity and the languages (Waksman & Shohamy, 2010; Yannuar & Febrianti, 2021). This explains why the city of Tel Aviv is plastered with signs mostly inscribed in Hebrew (Waksman & Shohamy, 2010). However, Han and Wu (2020) point out that, sometimes, the public are not happy with regulations concerning the use of a particular language in the public space. They mention that the Putonghua language should be used in the public space of the city of Guangzhou in order for the language to gain vitality. But since the public are not happy with the regulation, this has created incessant conflicts and dissents among the people and this has resulted in the realization

29

of several languages, such as English, Cantonese and traditional Chinese in the public space.

Another significant determinant of multilingualism in the public domain is the advancement in technology. Technology has made it possible and easier to inscribe more than one language on a sign. Due to that the public space has greatly changed in the recent decade (Bátyi, Farran, Ismail, Popova & Sa'ed, 2019). They, however, add that even though technology has advanced the growth of multilingualism in the city of Veszprém, Hungarian language still dominates the top-down signs. Coluzzi (2017), Johnson (2017), Leeman and Modan (2009) believe that, aside technological advancement factors such as commodification, culture, globalization, and modernity promote the use of more than one language on signages in the public domain.

Different from the studies on LL that examine issues such as multilingualism, and globalization, these studies Aladjem and Jou (2016); Budarina (2015); Malinowski (2016); and Shohamy (2011) also investigate the institutionalization of languages in the public space that helps people to familiarize themselves with their new environment. For instance, Malinowski (2016) notes that students constantly practise the languages used as medium of instruction in the classroom as they step outside the classroom to perform different curricular activities. Students read information on all kinds of notices which help to develop their linguistic competence (2016). However, Du Plessis (2010) and Pavlenko (2009) allude that LL can be changed when there is change in a regime as a result of power change. Sometimes, some minority languages lose their value and impact in the course of reconstructing the public space due to evolution and dynamicity of language.

From the above review of LL studies conducted outside Africa, many of the studies show that certain determining factors affect language use in the public space. For example, the prevalent use of English is necessitated by globalization, internationalization, commercialization, immigration, and prestige associated with English (Coluzzi, 2017; Johnson, 2017; and Karolak, 2020; Lai, 2013). However, there are manifestations of indigenous languages in the public space due to regulations governing the use of such languages in the public space in order for the languages to gain vitality and to also promote national identity.

2. 4. 2 Linguistic Landscape Studies Conducted in Africa

In Africa, aside language policy, there are a number of factors such as religion, power relation, identity, prestige, urbanization, and globalization which influence the choice of LL as found in the review of the previous set of studies. These factors are highlighted in the present review of LL studies in Africa.

Commercialization, globalization, and commodification affect the LL situation of many countries, particularly Africa (Johnson, 2012; Johnson, 2018; Juffermans, 2014; Kotze & Du Plessis, 2010; Woldemariam & Lanza, 2014). Johnson (2012) indicates that the official and non-official signs are predominantly written in English at the expense of the local African languages purposely for commercial purposes. Also, Lanza and Woldemariam (2014) examined the LL of Ethiopia and found that, by using English and foreign brand names, shop and business owners try to scale their operations up further in the indexicality and economic hierarchies. However, Juffermans (2014) is of the

31

view that the kind of attention given to English should also be applied to African languages in order for the latter to be more dynamic, fluid and creative.

Scholars such as Ayantayo (2016), Juffermans (2012), and Ndimulunde (2019) claim that language use by business and shop owners contributes to multilingualism. Business or shop owners' manipulative use of language either affects customers or the business itself. For instance, Ayantayo (2016) specifically states that languages on sign posts and the billboards in the Ibadan Metropolis are strategically used by marketers to attract customers to buy their products. Juffermans (2012) investigated the LL of the city Gambia and realized that the use of different languages on signs helps businessmen to achieve their communicative purpose. He emphasizes that different languages on signs serve as marketing strategies to positively impact on decisions of customers. Akindele (2011), on other hand, argues that different factors like immigration, tourism, urbanization, and eurocentrism play significant roles in the linguistic diversity of the African continent. However, their impact on the LL of rural areas is relatively low due to the little presence of signs in the rural area (Álvarez-Mosquera & Coetzee, 2018; Silue, 2015).

Linguistic landscape of an area can be influenced by power relations, symbolic value, identity, religion, and vitality that are accorded the language used. These scholars or researchers provide different realizations of language use in the public space (Inya, 2019; Kotze & Du Plessis, 2010; and Mokwena, 2018) in contrast to aforementioned factors which promote the growth multilingualism. For example, Kotze and Du Plessis (2010) examined the LL of the southern Free State and found that the state is influenced by pragmatic and

symbolic considerations which sometimes bring about socio-political changes to some extent.

One key benefit associated with LL is life preservation. Jolayemi and Mahmud (2017) investigated the LL of Akure Metropolis, Nigeria, and found that LL helps to prevent or minimize road accidents. This is due to the fact, that various road signs erected on the streets of Akure Metropolis serve to forewarn road users of dangers ahead. However, a few accidents do occur because of the nonchalant attitude of some of the road users. Jolayemi and Mahmud (2017) once again add that in order for the road accidents to be totally prevented, there should be frequent public education on the various road signs in the Metropolis to make the public aware of the meaning and functions of the signs. Since road signs are government owned or top-down signs, the language on the various signs do reflect the language policy of Nigeria (Jolayemi & Mahmud, 2017).

Interestingly, the LL situation outside Africa is similar to that of Africa. Certain determinant factors such as commodification, commercialization, identity, religion, immigration, and tourism contribute to the growth of multilingualism in the public space in Africa. As a result of prestige, globalization, and internationalization, English plays key roles in the public space.

In the next section of the review, I present LL studies from the Ghanaian context, focusing on those conducted in both urban and rural areas, excluding studies on educational institutions since studies on educational institutions across the globe are discussed in another section.

According to Anderson et al. (2020), the dominance of English across the globe cannot be underestimated. They indicate that there is a dominant use

33

of English in the LL of Central Business Street of Accra, which makes English a powerful tool for inter-ethnic communication and national integration, giving an impression of the low vitality of indigenous languages in the commercial space. Azidor (2020) presents Ho as a multilingual city since English, Ewe and Twi were found on the billboards in Ho. English was frequently used over the other indigenous languages on the various billboards in Ho because Ho is made up of different people from different linguistic backgrounds and serves as the focal point of trade activities for the neighbouring towns. Therefore, English is dominantly used to foster a common means of communication among the neighbouring towns and the people living in Ho. This confirms Anderson's et al. (2020) position that, English is dominantly used over the indigenous languages such as Ga, Fante and Akan in the Ghana because english is a powerful tool for inter-ethnic communication. Nonetheless, Anane (2019) argues that the indigenous languages play significant roles in terms of vitalizing the local languages or for their socio-cultural benefits as the indigenous languages are used side-by-side with English.

Quayson (2014) posits that the interaction between the overt signs of globalization and the hidden historical forces such as multiculturalism, ethnicity and race has transformed Accra into a global centre of cosmopolitanism. He espouses that Oxford Street serves as a microcosm of the historical and urban transformations that have shaped Accra into the diverse and paradoxical Metropolis it is today. In view of that, Oxford Street offers commercial place for advertising varied local and foreign commodities. Through this study, Quayson (2014), became an eye opener to many sociolinguistic scholars and researchers in LLS, particularly Anderson et. al (2020). Aside commodification

34

of languages, researchers such as Williams (2016) claim that different ideologies also reflect on these signages. For instance, Williams (2016) examined pool party advertisement and found that liberal sexual identity is dominantly found in the poster. Also, the *female* figure is given priority over the *male* figure in the advertisement. This is due to the fact that the posters are mainly used to attract people to the pool party. Poster designers are of the view that the *female* figure can serve the purpose of attraction far more than the *male* figure.

Religiously, studies on LL usually concern how churches write their names and construct identities (Akoto & Afful, 2021; Akoto, 2021; Mensah & Afful, 2022). These names and identities are realized from the signs such as posters and billboards that churches paste or erect respectively. For instance, Akoto and Afful (2021) investigated the languages in church names in Ghana and found that churches in Ghana generally employ global, glocal and local languages in writing church names. The diverse languages used in writing the names stem from the fact that there is lack of policy on language choice and the 1992 Constitution of the country makes provision for the freedom of worship in Ghana. Similar to Akoto and Afful's (2021) study is Akoto's (2021). He maintains that church names in Ghana include globe, continent, nation, city and institution-oriented geographical markers (GMs).

Aside names, religious bodies such as Charismatic through language, construct and express various identities such as "church", "ministry", "camp", "movement", "assembly", and "chapel", when Mensah and Afful (2022) investigated how some Charismatic and Pentecostal churches in Ghana

35

construct their identities. Also, through the signages (billboards) the churches can be identified (Akoto, 2021).

Moreover, Kezia (2013) claims that most of the signs at Kotokuraba Market in the Cape Coast Metropolis contain religious messages. This is due to the fact that most of the shop owners are either Christians or Muslims. Through these signs, Christian and Muslim shop owners express their appreciation to God and Allah, respectively for reasons known to them. However, Inkoom (2015) points out that advertisers or organizers of church programmes employ different strategic semiotic codes on church posters to lure more people to attend the programmes. There has been commodification of religion these days due to the competitive nature of the market.

Nevertheless, studies on LL in Ghana are not limited to the religious domain but to other social institutions such as the work place. Anane (2019) explains that, there is predominant use of Fante language among the languages used to write the inscriptions on canoes even though Winneba is in Effutu-speaking community. The inscriptions on the canoes are not only for identification purposes but also for the creation of avenues for people to express, share their experiences, sentiments, thoughts, and opinions among others, to other people. However, Nartey (2003) argues that inscriptions on canoes do not only communicate the writer's feelings, emotions and thoughts but also communicate social problems and political issues.

Similarly, Nyame and Tomekyin (2018) and Nyarko (2015) add that people communicate all sorts of information through the messages they write on vehicles. Nyarko (2015), for instance, alludes that most of the drivers and car owners in the Cape Coast Municipality prefer religious inscriptions to

36

secular inscriptions, showing that they are religiously inclined. For instance, they prefer inscriptions such as *God is our provider*, *Good God*, *God is light*, *Allah is giver*, and *Allah the merciful*, and these help to identify the faith and belief of the inscribers. An inscription such as *Be brave* can be said to contain inspirational messages which provide motivation and encouragement to the inscribers. Other inscriptions such as *Good name* also teach morals in certain ways which help transform peoples' behaviours in the society. Inscribers are motivated by personal relationships, experience, religious affiliation and social problems in writing the inscriptions. Therefore, writing these inscriptions on their vehicles help to provide some education to the general public.

Aside inscriptions on vehicles, people use signs to express their thoughts, emotions, perceptions, feelings and ideas through clothing such as T-shirts, and hats they wear (Prah, 1998; Kezia, 2013). According to Prah (1998), inscriptions are not merely written for writing sake but they are also written to communicate relevant information to the public. Prah believes that writers of these inscriptions obtain satisfaction since they communicate to the public their thoughts through signs.

Considering the studies on LL in Ghana, researchers and scholars usually focus on the urban public space due to the proliferation of signages in the public space. It is evident from the review that some scholars devote attention to languages that are inscribed on the various signages (Anane, 2019; Anderson et al., 2020) while others consider the messages which sign developers want to convey to the world (Keziah, 2013; Prah, 1998). Regardless of the dominant use of English in the public space in the Ghanaian context, there

37

are some instances where indigenous languages such as Fante is prioritized over English (Anane, 2019).

2. 4. 3 Linguistic Landscape Studies on Tertiary Educational Institutions

This section investigates the LL studies conducted in educational institutions across the globe to ascertain the languages that are inscribed on both public and private signages and what accounts for the dominance of one language over the other. I first pay attention to LL studies conducted outside Ghana before that of Ghana and then colleges and elementary schools.

The strict adherence to language policy regarding the use of language in the public domain affects the use of a particular language (Haynes, 2012; Jane-Francis & Foncha, 2014; Yavari, 2012). For example, Yavari's (2012) study found that at both Linkong University and ETH Zurich, the national languages (Swedish at LiU and German at ETH) were dominant. This decision is influenced by the language policy in each university in an attempt to mitigate the language barrier which may occur as a result of students coming from different linguistic backgrounds. Similarly, Jane-Francis and Foncha (2014) explored the language ideologies reflected on the LL of one South African university and found that the LL of the university revealed the language practices at the institution. Even though the policy permits English to be used as the medium of instruction, it also allows the use of other Western Cape languages. One wonders if everyone reads and understands the notices in English.

Sometimes, there are inconsistencies between policy intentions and the languages seen in the public space of an area (Abongdia & Foncha, 2017; Haynes, 2012). Haynes (2012) examined the LL at Cardiff University and found

38

that there was a mismatch between policy intentions and the effect of the policy, with just under half of all signs being recorded as monolingually English, which counters sentiments expressed in the Welsh Language Scheme initiated by the University, stating that all public signages, without exception, should be bilingual. Haynes (2012) shares a similar view with Abongdia and Foncha (2017), who found that the languages on signs do not match the language policy of the country when they investigated the LL of the University of Yaoundé 1, Cameroon. This is due to the numerous indigenous languages spoken in Cameroon. Cameroon has about 280 indigenous languages, necessitating the use of English and French as the media of instruction in Cameroonian schools. It is in the light of this that the university adopts a strong bilingual language policy. However, sign developers do not necessarily follow the intentions of the policy.

Multilingualism in the study of LL has attracted several scholars and researchers (Draper, 2010; Siricharoen, 2016; Simungala, 2020). Draper (2010) pointed out that introduction of more than one language signage in the regional university for Northeast Thailand (Isan), Khon Kaen University was a laudable idea. This makes local and foreign students to appropriately interpret the diverse signages on the university campus. Siricharoen (2016) added that both official and non-official signs at the Faculty of Arts promote multilingualism in the university. On the various signs, it was found that English and Thai were most dominantly used on two types of signs, implying that multilingualism is largely at work within the faculty.

However, due to multilingualism, globalization, internationalization, and other factors; sometimes, English is prioritized over the national or

39

indigenous languages (Jing-Jing, 2015; Legge, 2016; Simungala, 2020). Simungala (2020) explains that the dominance of English over other languages such as Japanese and Chinese on the LL of the University of Zambia results from globalization. Also, Jing-Jing (2015) examined the multicultural university campus signs in Japan and found that the campus has large amount of bilingual Japanese-English signs, a trend towards internationalization.

Contrastingly, indigenous or native languages play crucial roles in the LL of some educational institutions regardless how English competes with the native languages (Jiao, 2021; Legge, 2016; Nosiani et al., 2019), in order to provide a safe and comfortable atmosphere to students. Jiao (2021) points out that Ankang University mainly uses Chinese language in conveying messages to the entire members of the university. This helps the Chinese language to gain vitality over other languages on the signs.

It is also worth mentioning that certain ideologies sometimes shape the use of language in the public domain (e.g., Davids, 2017; Quaye, 2011). Davids (2017) examined inscriptions on wristbands worn by University of Cape Coast and Takoradi Technical University students and found that the themes on these wristbands influence their patronage. Through these wristbands people communicate their love, affiliation, religious beliefs, life experiences and aspirations. Quaye (2011) points out that students use words of appeal and persuasion on notice boards. He realized that the information presented on the various notice boards on the campus of University of Cape Coast are devoid of imperatives, as students do not wield such social power to use imperatives in the information they present. Words of courtesy such as *kindly*, *please* and *urge* are also used to get students perform to certain activities. According to Korang

40

(2011), inscriptions in T-shirts worn by university students communicate several issues such as religion, self-identity, insult, academic and designer labels. It is through these issues that ideas, dreams, aspirations, feelings and thoughts are communicated to the public. However, sometimes some of the wearers of these T-shirts wear them without necessarily paying attention to the inscriptions in the T- shirts.

Researchers such as Adjei (2014), are of the view that since some of the inscriptions of signages contain all kinds of errors, sometimes viewers find it difficult to understand the information they read. According to Adjei (2014), inscriptions on billboards contain concord errors and ambiguity. When these errors happen, some viewers sometimes misinterpret the information on the billboards. This is because either the errors change the actual meaning of the message or the message becomes vague. Dzade (2020, p. 37) posits that advertisements on some billboards contain lexical hybridization, as in 'wo ye guy', which means 'you are current'. The 'current' means the person in question is abreast with contemporary situations or issues. This means that the sign developer and the viewer share or have knowledge of the social context in which the billboard is erected. Sign developers consider the linguistic background of the viewers in order not to miss the intent of the message the sign developers want to communicate (2020).

Studies of LL indicate that LL is not only limited to the kinds of languages that are present on signs and the communicative functions of these signs but also the lexico-grammatical features of signs are of interest to some researchers. Researchers such as Adjei (2014) and Dzade (2020) pay attention to the lexico-grammatical features in order to ascertain whether the words,

41

phrases and clauses on billboards are devoid of grammatical infelicities or not in that the meaning that these lexico-grammatical features convey contribute to the entire meaning of particular signage (Dzade, 2020).

Some studies have also been conducted in colleges across the globe (Mahemuti, 2018; Yoel, 2020) to ascertain how language is displayed publicly on signages on the various campuses in either bilingual or multilingual contexts. Mahemuti (2018) argues that the creation of multilingual LL for international students in Asian College serves as a tool to increase their language awareness, improve social interaction, and represent their identities. He further explains the relevance of LL in the educational setting where students use LL as a tool to interact with each other; thereby, promoting teaching and learning. Yoel (2020) shares similar view with Mahemuti (2018) on multilingualism in the sense that, Yoel (2020) investigated the LL of the two Teacher Training Colleges in Israel and found that the LL of the two colleges is multilingual in nature, thus, English and Hebrew. Nonetheless, Yoel (2020) identified that English is prioritized over Hebrew due to the prestige associated with the use of English.

Dressler (2015), Kretzer and Kaschula (2021), Laihonen and Todor (2017) and Szabo (2015) argue that signs at the elementary and the kindergarten schools basically serve pedagogical purposes. These signs are usually aimed at developing the reading and speaking skills of the pupils but not necessarily looking at either the economical or global purposes of these languages on the signs.

It is evident from the LL studies on tertiary educational institutions I have reviewed that English has become an international language since it plays significant roles across the globe, as pointed out by Gorter (2006).

42

Multilingualism in the various institutions has become a tool for promoting socialization in every sphere of human life. Blommaert, Collins and Slembrouck (2005) believe that multilingualism is not something that people have or don't have; rather, it is something that the environment, through interactional emergence and structured determination, allows or prevents people from using. Though LL studies on tertiary educational institutions, in both in Africa and non-Africa contexts, seem to be proliferate, much attention has not been paid to LL studies on tertiary educational institutions in Ghana.

Importantly, from the global perspective, it is clear from the past studies on LL that the presence of several languages in the public space can be attributed to factors such as urbanization, globalization, and commodification. Meanwhile, English is mostly being used as a preferred language due to its associated imports such as prestige accorded it. The other factors are usually related to issues that the languages communicate. For instance, national identity, ethnolinguistic vitality and sociocultural issues are reflected on various signs.

2. 5 Relationship between Previous Studies and Present Study

From the above review, it is evident that several studies have been conducted on LL of cities and rural areas and tertiary educational institutions across the globe (Drapper, 2010; Gorter, 2006; Jane-Francis & Foncha, 2014; Jing-Jing, 2015; Loth, 2016; Pavlenko, 2009; Quayson, 2014). These studies, especially studies on tertiary educational institutions provide in-depth information about how language is publicly presented in educational institutions and builds the necessary ground for this study. Ultimately, almost all the previous studies on LL are conducted in multilingual contexts (Abondgia & Foncha, 2017; Draper, 2010; Haynes, 2012; Jane-Francis & Foncha, 2014).

43

Locally, in Ghana, most of the studies on LL focused on cities (Afriyie, 2020; Akoto & Afful, 2021; Akoto, 2021; Anderson et al., 2020; Anane, 2019; and Nyame & Tomekyin, 2018) but seemingly neglecting tertiary educational institutions in the country, with the exception of these few LL studies (Adjei, 2014; Davids, 2017; Korang, 2011; and Quaye, 2011). However, this creates an empirical gap for further studies on LL in tertiary educational institutions in the country.

The current study is relevant since it focuses on the LL of University of Cape Coast. Earlier studies on educational institutions conducted outside Ghana (Drapper, 2010; Jane-Francis & Foncha, 2014; Jing-Jing, 2015; Legge, 2016; Mahemutu, 2018; Nosiana et al., 2019; Siricharoen, 2016; Yavari, 2012; and Yoel, 2020) provide a significant basis to the present study since they offer relevant information on how languages are publicly displayed in various educational institutions. Thus, the present study is concerned with the LL of University of Cape Coast.

2. 6 Chapter Summary

The chapter focused on the review of related literature. The review was aimed to build the necessary conceptual grounds for the present study and to demonstrate the importance of the research questions that the study aims to answer. The theories for the current study have been discussed as well as the key concepts. The chapter also reviewed relevant studies on LL conducted in both African and non-African contexts and concluded with the justification for the present study.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODS

3. 0 Introduction

In the previous chapter, the relevant literature relating to the concerns of this study was reviewed. The aim of this chapter is to present the methodological procedures used in the study. This includes the research design, research site for the study, data set, sampling procedure, data collection procedure, analytical framework and data analysis procedure, reliability, validity and ethics of the study.

3. 1 Research Design

Simungala (2020) avers that 'research design' is a plan that serves as a data collection tool to investigate and analyze the data collected and provides a specific direction in answering the research questions. A research design provides a specific direction in undertaking research, as pointed out by Creswell (2014).

In this study, qualitative research design, particularly content analysis, was used to analyze the data. However, Leeman and Modan (2009) claim that studies on LL mostly employ quantitative approach since researchers need to document every material manifestation of language and compare the percentages of texts in various languages in order to present the language which has more 'linguistic vitality'. Regardless of the claim by Leeman and Modan (2009), the present study employs mainly qualitative content approach complemented by descriptive statistics due to the nature of the research questions and the aim of this study. Qualitative research design helps researchers to make meaning of the lives, experiences and the structures of the

45

world. Words and pictures are analyzed, based on the interest of the research in trying to make meaning of the world in this kind of research design (Mwinlaaru, 2012). According to Creswell and Creswell (2017, p. 43), this research design is "an approach for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem".

Also, content analysis is a suitable method for the analysis of written verbal or visual communication messages (Cole, 1998; and Stemler, 2015). According to Azidor (2020), in content analysis, a wide range of analytical strategies are adopted to constructively combine pictures and texts to communicate one or more than one meaning. Patton (2003) claims that content analysis is a technique for making inferences by objectively and systematically identifying specified characteristics of message. In content analysis, subjective interpretation method of data analysis of a text is key within the context of communication, through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes and patterns (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005).

In this study, content analysis was used since it enabled the systematic interpretation of the signages which constitute the data of this current study. As emphasized by Holsti (1968), content analysis is a technique for gathering information about communications in a systematic and objective manner that allows for the creation of inferences. This is a crucial aspect because it can be used to comprehend the meaning of communications rather than just compiling data and tallying word or phrase occurrences (as cited in Cavanagh, 1997). Descriptive statistics is aimed at determining tendencies (Cohen et al., 2007; as cited in Dinçer (2018). Descriptive statistics mainly helps in presenting frequencies and percentages of a particular data (Dinçer, 2018; Fisher &

46

Marshall, 2009). In this study, Research Question One is aimed at finding the range of public signs that is present at University of Cape Coast so this involves some level of statistics.

3. 2 Research Setting

The research setting for this study is University of Cape Coast (UCC).

Figure 1 illustrates the entrance of the West Gate, University of Cape Coast.

Figure 1: The entrance of West Gate-UCC (Retrieved from https://ucc.edu.gh)

Figure 1 presents the entrance of West Gate of University of Cape Coast (UCC). The entrance leads mainly to Old Site campus where the university first began its activities. The old administration block, few faculties/schools, departments and residential halls such as Oguaa and Adehye can be found at this place.

Geographically, the University of Cape Coast community concerns the two main campuses, namely Old Site and New Site (Science). The university was established in 1962 as a college in October. This was as a result of a recommendation by an international commission appointed by the government

47

of Ghana in December, 1960, to advise on the future of university education and the possibility of establishing a third university at Cape Coast. Soon afterwards, the government passed a legislation, University of Cape Coast Act 1971(Act 390), which granted full university status to the College starting from October 1, 1971. This was then reinforced with the University of Cape Coast Law 1992 (PNDC Law 278).

Linguistically, the members (students and staff) of the university community come from different ethnic and linguistic backgrounds. The existence of ethnic and cultural diversity accounts for the several languages on the university campus. Many indigenous languages such as Fante, Asante Twi, Ewe, Nzema among others, are spoken by the members aside English language which is mainly used in formal contexts. Other foreign languages such as French, Chinese are also spoken by some members of the university community. However, English is used as the lingual franca to mitigate any linguistic barrier which may exist as these members speak different languages. In view of that, English is mostly used in the following places within the university: restaurants, car parks, lecturer theatres, residential halls, offices of lectures, and general offices. Staff and students mostly communicate in English in both formal and informal contexts. However, sometimes Ghanaian languages such as Akan, Ewe, Nzema, Dagbani, and Sefwi are used in informal contexts.

By 1964 government and other stakeholder saw the need to build more structures in order to contain the human resources running the university and the students. To this end, a new campus was created, New Site. Recently, most of the activities in the university are conducted at New Site since a significant number of the structures such as the new Administration Block, Main library,

Colleges, Faculties, Departments, Lecture theatres and other units are found at this place (60th Anniversary Celebration, 60 Years of Quality Higher Education: Expanding the Frontiers. University of Cape Coast, 2022).

UCC is structured into colleges, faculties/schools/institutes/centres, departments, and units, all spread on its two campuses; Old Site and New Site. The students can further be classified into three groups: regular students who are usually admitted directly from the senior high schools, 'mature' students who are already burdened with adult responsibility and are pursuing further education for different reasons and lastly distance students, those who study diverse programmes in the comfort of their homes. The university currently runs the regular, sandwich, and distance modes of education and has a population of 79,441 (60th Anniversary Celebration, 60 Years of Quality Higher Education: Expanding the Frontiers. University of Cape Coast, 2022; Afful & Mwinlaaru, 2012).

In the *2022 Times Higher Education World University Rankings*, UCC was adjudged the topmost university in Ghana and West Africa and it is among the top 5 universities in Africa. It is also adjudged first globally for research influence. Recently, in the *2023 Times Higher Education World University Rankings,* UCC remains the best university in Ghana, 1st in West Africa and 4th in Africa. It is placed 24th on the universities globally for research influence, as well as amongst top 400 globally (Retrieved from https://www. timeshighereducation.com/world-university-rankings/ university-cape-coast).

I chose UCC due to a number of reasons. First, much attention has not been given to the research setting of this study regarding LL studies. The few studies such as Adjei (2014) and Davids (2017) investigated some aspects of

49

LL like inscriptions on billboards and wristbands, without paying attention to the entire LL of UCC campus. Second, I am affiliated to UCC as a student; I had my first degree at UCC and, recently, I am a postgraduate student in the same university. Therefore, I have acquired a lot of information with respect to the various public signs on UCC campus. This helped me during the data collection. Lastly, I had easier access to data saving me from the inconveniences and difficulties which characterize accessing data from an unknown or unfamiliar location.

Students from different parts of the world come to UCC to study different programmes, so the university provides measures to regulate the day-to-day activities of the entire members, especially students and lecturers of the university. In this light, the university has several public signs for members to get easy access to information. These public signages are placed at vantage points where they can be easily seen. Also, these signs are not entirely owned by the university as there are also private owned signs. Both the public and private signs collectively help to provide relevant information to members of the university. Some of the signs are found inside buildings while others are found outside. However, per the purpose of this study, outside or public signs are considered.

3. 3 Data Set

The data of this study comprise 400 public or outdoor signs on UCC campus which are easily visible to the public, particularly members of the university community. The pictures include both top-down signs (university owned) and bottom-up signs (private or individual). Table 1 illustrates the frequency of each of the public signs collected for this study:

50

Table 1: Frequencies of Public Signs

No.	Public Sign	Frequency	Percentage %
1	Names of colleges	5	1.25
2	Names of faculties/schools/ institutes and centre	12	3
3	Names of departments	40	10
4	Names of lecture theatres/conference rooms/auditoriums	24	6
5	Names of residential halls/ guest houses	14	3.5
6	Names government buildings/ institutions/restaurants	15	3.75
7	Names of non-government institutions/shops	15	3.75
8	Directional signs	20	5
9	Road/Street signs	20	5
10	Warning signs	10	2.5
11	Announcements	50	12.5
12	Posters	36	9
13	Billboards	20	5
14	Banners	10	2.5
15	Plaques	9	2.25
16	Graffiti	10	2.5
17	Parking lots/ Shuttle terminals Transport stations	32	8
18	Door name plates	50	12.5
19	Wearables	4	1
20	Miscellaneous	4	1
	Total	400	100

The public signs illustrated in Table 1 form the data for this study, basically

from primary sources.

3. 4 Sampling Procedure

In this study, purposive sampling was chosen. It is a form of non-

probability sampling which is characterized by the use of judgement and

deliberate effort to obtain representative samples by including typical areas or

groups in the sample (Key, 1997; as cited in Ahwa, 2014). I chose this procedure

to enable me to sample 400 out of about 900 public signs of the data of this

study focusing on public signs which contain the right information to the

51

research questions. Public signs were considered over inside signs. Outside signs, both government (university owned) and private (individual), within the university are plenty; therefore, this sampling procedure was appropriate due to time restraint. This means that not every sign had the chance of being part of the study sample (Etikan & Bala, 2017). Importantly, the selection of the sample of the data was based on typical areas of the data that will provide the right information to answer the research questions.

3. 5 Data Collection Procedure

Through observation and picture taking, I collected data from University of Cape Coast (UCC) campus. I contacted the Head of Department of English at UCC for introductory letters to obtain permission to take pictures from every part of the university. The letters were taken to various individuals offices and general offices of colleges, faculties/schools, departments to seek permission to collect data. For a period of four months, from 11th of May to 30th of August, 2022, I used iPhone to take pictures which had been publicly displayed on the whole campus, both Old Site and New Site, after which backups were created to cater for any eventuality which might occur. Even though the university campus is huge, I managed to obtain almost all the publicly displayed pictures at both Old Site and New Site.

I focused on outside signs while inside signs were ignored in line with Anderson's et al. (2020) study. This was due to the fact that the inside signs do not necessarily communicate information to the entire members of the university. Also, the inside signs are not easily visible and accessible. Importantly, public signs, for instance, road signs, are easily visible and largely provide general information entire members of university community.

52

Through purposive sampling, I carefully and systematically selected signages to reflect the linguistic landscape of UCC. I subsequently visited colleges, faculties/ schools/centres/institutes, departments, lecture theatres, halls and observed and took pictures of door name plates, notices, road signs, warning signs, key holders, hand bags, pennants, parking lots, private or commercial signs and others such as clothes, brooches, hats, lacostes, rubber bands, medals and ties. These place signs and names do not absolutely cover the entire university because the public signs at the University Hospital do not form part of the data of this study. This was due to the difficulty in accessing signs at the hospital.

3. 6 Analytical Framework and Data Analysis Procedure

This section discusses the analytical frameworks and data analysis procedure used in analyzing the data. The analytical framework will first be discussed followed by the data analysis procedure.

Drawing insights from Landry and Bourhis' (1997) definition of LL and Scollon and Scollon's (2003) study, the data were analyzed. Landry and Bourhis' (1997) definition of LL assisted me to categorize the data according to the data's nature and purpose since these scholars' definition of LL concerns the linguistic items which collectively represent the signages of a particular geographical territory. Moreover, Scollon and Scollon's (2003) study was adopted to as part of the analytical frameworks to do the analysis. Scollon and Scollon's (2003) highlights the material presentation of language in the public space. They indicate that the position of a language or semiotic resources on a sign as well as certain salient features such as font type and font size contributes to the importance attached to the language or the semiotic resources. In the light

53

of this the theory helped me to analyze the language and the semiotic resources used in writing the public signs as well as how the language and the semiotic resources help in realizing the communicative functions of the public signs.

Lastly, concerning the communicative functions of the public signs, I was influenced ed by Landry and Bourhis' (1997) informational and symbolic functions of LL. Their functions provided fundamental understanding to the analysis of the communicative functions of the public signs. However, because the form of a public sign influences it communicative purposes, I sometimes drew insight from Scollon and Scollon's (2003) study as well to aid in the analysis of the communicative functions.

The data were analyzed in line with the objectives of the study. Creswell (2003, p. 217) observes that data analysis "involves making sense out of text and image data". In this case, it involves making meaning out of the public signs from the setting of the present study (as cited in Simungala, 2020). The analysis was done separately.

With respect to the first research question, I grouped and coded all the pictures according to their nature and purpose. Appropriate names were provided to identify public signs per the groupings and coding of the data by the help of my supervisor and colleagues. Drawing on Landry and Bourhis' (1997) definition of LL and Scollon and Scollon's (2003) study, I systematically categorized, named and interpreted the signs accordingly. I concede that even though I relied on Landry and Bourhis' (1997) definition of LL, it did not account for all the signs in the study. However, it helped to cater for most of the signs which constituted the data for this study.

The second research question was answered based on the functions the various public signs perform. Every sign is aimed at particular people in the society; therefore, the analysis of the various public signs presents the diverse communicative purposes of these public signs. Importantly, analysis of the said research question was mainly based on Landry and Bourhis' (1997) informational and symbolic functions of LL, in order to unearth the diverse communicative functions of the public signs on UCC campus.

3. 7 Reliability, Validity and Ethics

According to Thanasegaran (2009), reliability is the degree to which a measure is error-free and produces consistent findings. In the present study, the categorization of the data, which were shown to my supervisor and colleagues, particularly those who have adequate knowledge of LLS, produced reasonable degree of sameness with their categorization of the signs.

In Azidor (2020), Hair et al. (2018) point out that validity is about the fact that the instrument and its measurements accurately measure what they are intended to measure. To ensure validity of the present study, I ensured that data collected are of high quality and devoid of dishonesty, so few steps were taken. The university under study, UCC, was described by providing a brief history of it in order to present a clear picture of the setting and scope of the study. Also, data collection procedure was clearly discussed in the previous section (See page 52) in order to ensure representative of the entire data.

Regarding ethical considerations, the data for the present study were public signs on UCC campus. Some of the public signs bear information like names of some of the offices and members of the university community, especially lecturers. Therefore, letters (See Appendix B) obtained from the

55

Head of Department of English, UCC, were taken to the offices and members to seek permission after which data were collected. Also, informed consent was sought from individuals where necessary before data were collected. Issues of confidentiality and anonymity were not significant in the present study due to its purpose.

3. 8 Chapter Summary

Chapter Three presented the methodological procedures employed in this study; namely research design; research setting; data set; sampling procedure; data collection procedure; analytical framework and data analysis procedure; reliability, validity, and ethics.
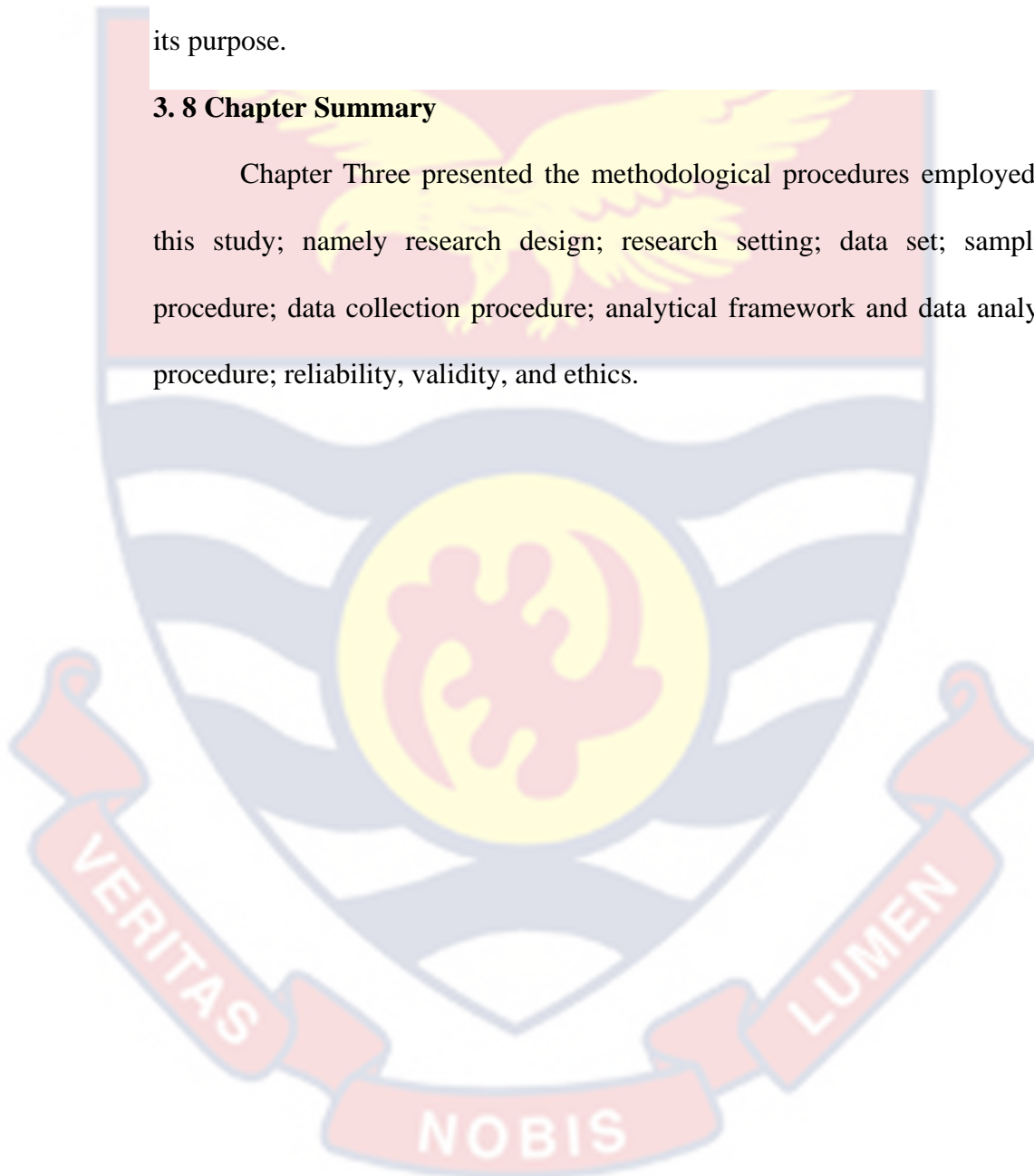
CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents an analysis and discussion of the collected data. Particularly, the analysis addresses the objectives of the study which include the range of public signs present at University of Cape Coast (UCC) and the communicative functions of these public signs. This study employs qualitative content method complemented by descriptive statistics in analyzing the gathered data.

4. 1 The Range of Public Signs at University of Cape Coast (UCC)

This section of the data analysis answers the first research question:

What is the range of public signs present at University of Cape Coast?

The first research question sought to describe the range of public signs present at University of Cape Coast (UCC). One would reasonably expect to see different kinds of signs in any educational setting, whether monolingual or bilingual in nature. These signs, be it top-down or bottom-up signs, tell one about the linguistic profile and the linguistic character of the university when one enters the university (Yoel, 2020). I observed that the entire university is plastered with several signs and these signs appear in different forms or shapes.

To address the first research question, I systematically categorized all the gathered data, drawing on Landry and Bourhis' (1997) definition of LL and Scollon and Scollon's (2003) study. Table 2 presents the different categories of the public signs identified and their descriptions.

57

Table 2: Categories and Description of Public Signs at UCC

No.	Public signs	Categories	Description
1	Names of colleges		Names given to various colleges
2	Names of faculties/schools/ institutes and centre	Names of public structures	Names given to faculties/schools/ institutes and centre
3	Names of departments		Names given to departments
4	Names of lecture theatres/conference rooms/auditoriums		Names given to lecture theatres/conference rooms/auditoriums
5	Names of residential halls/ guest houses		Names given to residential halls and guest houses
6	Names government buildings/ institutions/restaurants		Names given to government buildings/ Institutions/restaurants
7	Names of non-government institutions /Shops	Names of private structures	Names given to private buildings
8	Directional signs		Signs erected on roadside or vantage places to give directions
9	Road/Street signs	Navigational signs	Signs erected on roadsides to give directions
10	Warning signs		Signs erected on roadsides or vantage places to prohibit people from performing certain actions or activities
11	Announcements		Printed sheets that contain information
12	Posters		Printed sheets with pictures that contain Information
13	Billboards	Notices	Information on a wood or a metal erected on roadside that give information
14	Banners		Printed texts and pictures on a fabric used to give information
15	Plaques		A ceramic containing information that is mounted at the façade of a building
16	Graffiti		Writings on walls or buildings
17	Parking lots/ Shuttle terminals Transport stations		Spaces for parking vehicles
18	Door name plates		Metallic plates on doors that name a person, an office or any other room
19	Wearables	Clothing	Items that can be worn
20	Miscellaneous	Souvenirs	Other items

58

Table 2 highlights the range of public signs and their respective categories. I now provide detailed descriptions of each of the signages under the main categories, namely Names of public and private structures, Navigational signs, Notices, Clothing and Souvenirs.

4. 2 Public Signs Classified as Names of Public Structures:

4. 2. 1 Names of Colleges at University of Cape Coast (UCC)

Figure 2 illustrates some colleges in UCC from the data of this study. Colleges are administrative units that are located in tertiary educational institutions, such as University of Cape Coast. From the illustrated Figure 2, it can be seen that some of the college names come with arrows pointing to where the colleges are. The other one without an arrow means that the name is written right at the façade of the college building. College of Education Studies and College of Distance Education (CoDE) appear with the university emblem and motto and have white backgrounds. The names are boldly written in upper case for viewers to clearly see and read as well. In general, the names are written in the university main colours, red, blue, white and yellow.

59
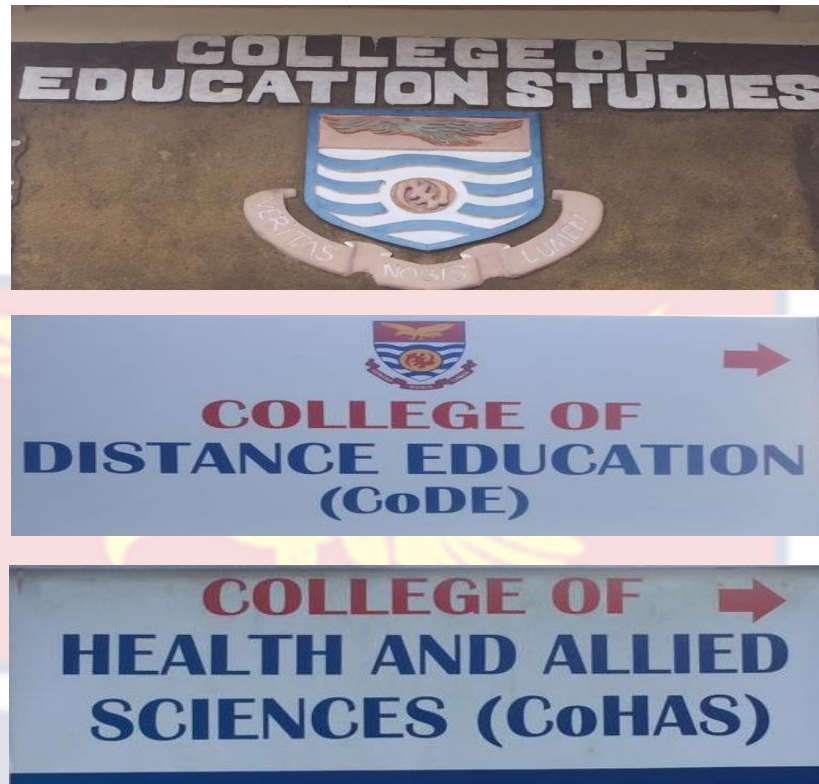
Figure 2: Names of 3 Colleges at UCC

In UCC, the College of Humanities of Legal Studies, for instance, is made up of faculties such as Faculty of Arts, Social Sciences, Economics, Law, and Business. Other colleges in UCC: College of Educational Studies, College of Health and Allied Sciences, and College of Distance Education, as illustrated in Figure 2 are located at different and significant places (60th Anniversary Celebration, 60 Years of Quality Higher Education: Expanding the Frontiers. University of Cape Coast, 2022).

The colleges offer important disciplines to both local and international students. Importantly, the colleges prepare people for jobs through its instruction and research activities, as described in their mission and vision statements. Also, it is the duty of the colleges to perform administrative, recruiting, teaching and research functions. Every information regarding the activities of the universities is disseminated by the colleges through to the sub

60

units of the university. Sometimes, a college and its associated schools and faculties are written together on the same sign. Some of the names are inscribed on a billboard while others are inscribed at the façade of the college building. The colleges are headed by provosts by appointment.

4. 2. 2 Names of Faculties/Schools/Institutes/Centres at UCC

Figure 3 highlights Faculty, School, Institute, and Centres from the data. Faculties/Schools/Institutes/Centres subunits under the colleges. These subunits perform similar functions like the colleges. They are found at significant places on UCC campus. The Faculties/Schools/Institutes/Centres names are boldly written in upper case at the façade of each building, but sometimes the names can also be found on billboards. For example, the name *the School of Medical Sciences* is written at façade of the building. The name comes with the university emblem and motto and the school's logo. The name is also written with blue colour whereas the Faculty of Law is written in two colours, red and blue. These colours are consistent in the university's colours. They all have white backgrounds to make the texts attractive and readable.

61

Figure 3: Names of Faculty, School, Institute and Centre

As part of its activities, UCC has several Faculties/Schools/Institutes/Centres on its campus, as illustrated in Figure 3. There are about 12 Faculties and Schools in UCC such as Faculty of Arts, Faculty of Law, Faculty of Social Sciences, School for Development Studies, School of Business and School of Economics, Faculty of Educational Foundations, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences Education, School of Allied Health Sciences, School of Medical Sciences, and School of Agriculture. These are found at different places at the university performing significant roles to the members of the university community, especially staff, lecturers and students. There are staff, lecturers and researchers of different qualifications or ranks such as MPhil, PhD, Associate Professor, Professor and others who are specialists in various fields of study working in these faculties or schools. The Faculties or Schools are headed by

62

Deans by election. The Faculties or Schools are to promote teaching, research and extension of various aspects (60th Anniversary Celebration, 60 Years of Quality Higher Education: Expanding the Frontiers. University of Cape Coast, 2022).

Also, there are 2 institutes, namely Institute of Education and Confucius Institute and 1 centre, which is Amissah-Arthur Language Centre from the data of this study which perform similar purposes as the Faculties and the Schools.

4. 2. 3 Names of Departments at UCC

Figure 4 below exemplifies departments from the data of the present study. Departments are also subunits under the various faculties and schools. The departments such as Department of Mathematics in UCC are responsible for running several disciplines; however, these departments are discipline specific. They are also located at different places in UCC.
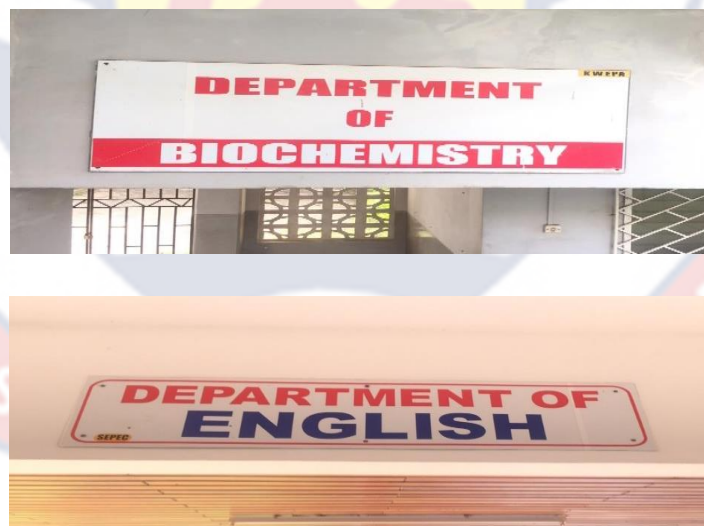
Figure 4: Names of Departments at UCC

From the illustrated Figure 4, it can be seen that the department names are written in upper case and have as well been boldened. The name, Department of Biochemistry is written in two main colours, namely white and

red. Where the text is red, the background is white and vice versa to make the sign clear. Unlike the Department of Biochemistry, the Department of English has only one colour used for the background and the texts appear in red and blue. The various departments at in UCC are responsible for conducting activities such as teaching, marking, grading, record keeping and counselling. It is also the responsibility of the various departments to design course outlines, time tables and monitor the teaching and learning activities of both undergraduate and post graduate programmes. These departments offer relevant undergraduate and postgraduate programmes to both local and international students (60th Anniversary Celebration, 60 Years of Quality Higher Education: Expanding the Frontiers. University of Cape Coast, 2022). Every department is headed by a "Head of Department" by appointment. This departmental system has significantly contributed to the development of the academic disciplines of the university (Diner, 1975).

4. 2. 4 Names of Lecture Theatres/Auditoriums/Conference Halls (Rooms)

Figure 5 presents Lecture Theatres/Auditoriums/Conference Halls from the data of this study. Lecture Theatres/Auditoriums/Conference Halls (Rooms) are buildings meant for teaching and learning, meetings, seminars, and conferences among others. These names of the buildings in question are all written mainly in blue colour, in upper case and as well boldened. They all have white backgrounds to make the blue inscriptions clearer. They are found at the façades of the buildings.

64

Figure 5: Names of Lecture Theatre, Auditorium, and Conference Hall

Lecture theatres, also known as 'lecture halls', are buildings found in educational tertiary institutions where teaching and learning usually take place. According to Ampofo, Amoah and Peprah (2020), buildings of such nature provide conducive and serene environment to support teaching and learning.

UCC has several lecture theatres like Albert Koomson Building Complex, S. K. Adjepong Lecture Theatre, Sandwich Lecture Theatre, G block, Lecture Theatre (LT), C. A. Ackah Lecture Theatre and others, as can be seen in Figure 5. These buildings are found at different places, solely serving the purpose of teaching and learning (60th Anniversary Celebration, 60 Years of Quality Higher Education: Expanding the Frontiers. University of Cape Coast, 2022).

There are also auditoriums such as the Main Auditorium, SMS Auditorium, Auditorium 900, Naana Opoku Agyemang Auditorium and conference halls/rooms like Kuupole Conference Room, Faculty of Arts Conference Room, Elizabeth Addabor Conference Hall and others on UCC campus. They are located at significant places. Important academic or non-academic programmes such as inaugural lecture, public lecture, general meeting, crusade, seminar, conference, and graduation are held at these places because of the nature of such buildings; hence, they are designated for such purposes.

4. 2. 5 Names of Residential Halls/Guest Houses

Figure 6 below demonstrates residential halls and guest house from the data of this study. Residential Halls and Guest Houses are places that provide accommodation facilities to students and visitors respectively in UCC. The names of the halls or a guest house, as illustrated in Figure 6 are written at the façades of the buildings. The writings have been boldened and capitalized.
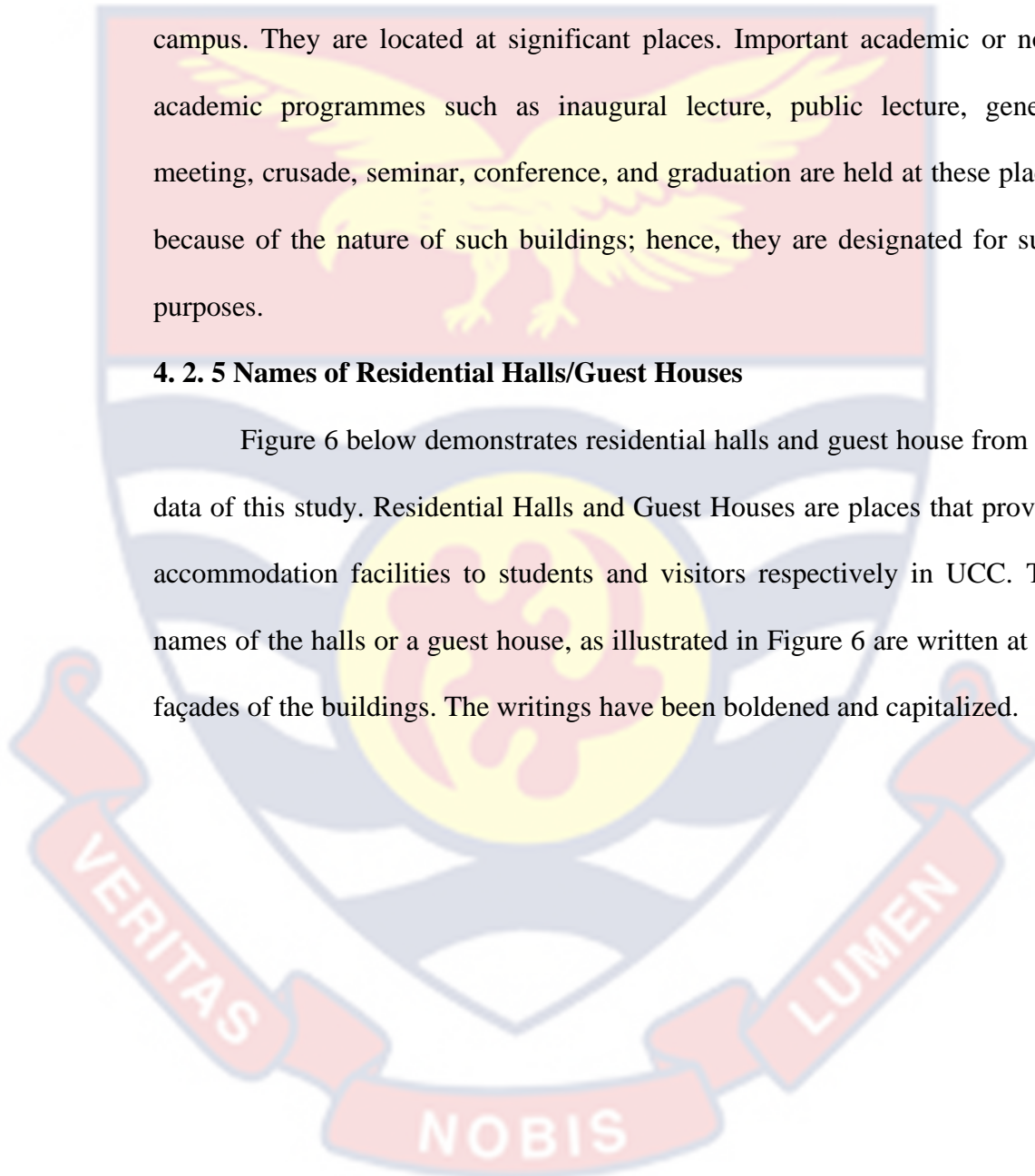
Figure 6: Names of Residential Halls and Guest House

There are several residential halls on UCC campus such as Kwame Nkrumah Hall, Valco Hall, Casely Hayford Hall, SRC Hall, Superannuation Hall, Oguaa Hall, Adehye Hall, University Alumni Hall, PSI Hall, and Atlantic Hall, as illustrated in Figure 6. These halls are systematically and uniquely named. They found at different places both at Old Site and New Site.

Halls like Casely Hayford Hall and Adehye Hall are single sex-based halls while the rest accommodate both males and females.

There are also guest houses like Institute of Education Chalet, Sasakawa Chalet and Guest House, School of Business Guest House located at different places, especially 'New Site' on UCC campus serving similar purposes like the residential halls. These places are mainly meant to accommodate visitors who

67

come to UCC for various reasons. The guest houses have other relevant information on the sign such as the contact and the email address of the business. Also, some other services that they offer are added on the sign for viewers to know the actual services that guest houses operators offer.

4. 2. 6 Names of Government Buildings/Institutions/Restaurants

Figure 7 illustrates government buildings and institution from the data. Government buildings/institutions/restaurants are university owned buildings which provide academic, administrative and other support to staff and students, in particular, at UCC. Usually, the government structures have the university's name on the sign. The name of each building is boldly written and as well in upper case. The signs of the government structures have white backgrounds, which is consistent with almost all university owned signs. Importantly, the sign of the Central Administration Block comes with the university emblem, as can be seen in Figure 7.
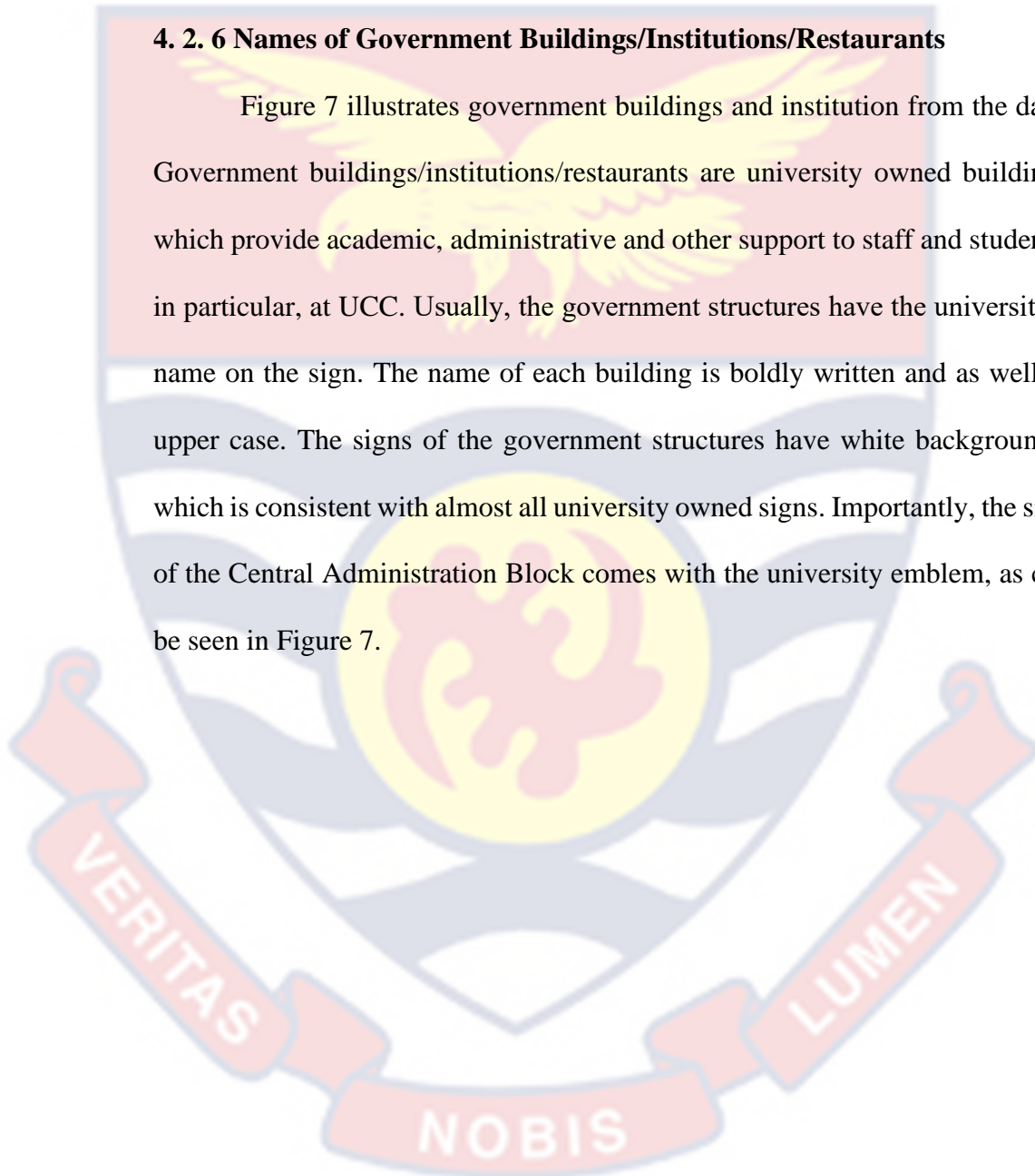
Figure 7: Names of Government Buildings and Institution

As a public university, UCC has several government and private buildings serving different purposes, as illustrated in Figure 7. As I have indicated in the previous chapter, UCC has two campuses: Old Site and New Site, so, these government and private buildings can be found at both places, particularly New Site. There are government buildings such as Emmanuel Adow Obeng Building, Sam Jonah Library, Ghana Police Service, Ghana National Fire Service, and financial institutions like Ghana Commercial Bank (GCB), Agricultural Development Bank (ADB), and Consolidated Bank Ghana (CBG).

69

These government and private buildings collectively support teaching, learning, research and other activities in academic institutions (Adeboyeje, 2000). Ampofo, Amoah and Peprah (2020) mention that even though both government or private buildings are accessible to everybody, they are separately managed and also provide different supports to people. The various government buildings on UCC campus are managed by the university authority.

4. 2. 7 Names of Non-Government Institutions/Shops/Eating Places

Figure 8 presents non-government institutions/shops/eating places selected as part of the data of this study. Non-government institutions/shops/eating places are private individual's establishments.

Figure 8: Names of Non-government Institutions, Shop and Eating place

Non- government institutions like Prudential Bank, Zenith Bank and Fidelity Bank are all financial institutions found on UCC campus, as can be seen in

70

Figure 8. There are also shops such as Mosco Phones, Franco Phones and Accessories, Rosadom Supermarket, Adu's Collection, Morning Star Barbering Salon, Amos Photos, Abundance of Grace Printing Press and others. Eating places like Lariba Food Joint, Original Special Waakye, Naf's Kitchen, and others are also found on UCC campus, particularly at 'Science Market'. These institutions and shops provide relevant non-academic support to the members of the university community.

4. 3 Public Signs Classified as Navigational:

4. 3. 1 Directional Signs

Figure 9 below represents some directional signs from the data. Directional signs are signs which provide environmental support to people. The directional signs in UCC usually contain the university' emblem and motto placed top of the signs. The background of each of the represented sign is white, making the texts readable. Again, the texts are boldly written in upper case with readable font sizes to make the text clearer. Importantly, almost all the directional signs come with an arrow pointing to the exact location written on the sign.

71

Figure 9: Directional Signs

At UCC, several directional signs such as those in Figure 9 are erected on its campus. It is worth noting that directional signs play significant roles in human life. In an educational environment like UCC, it is important to have a serene atmosphere to promote effective teaching and learning. It is for this reason that the university authority deems it important to erect directional signs of many kinds. The directional signs are aimed at everybody on UCC campus, not only its members. Names of buildings and places are clearly and boldly written on the signages and erected at important places, especially junctions for ease of direction. The writings on the directional boards are simple, formal and devoid of any ambiguity in order to serve the intended purposes.

Usually, the directional signs come with arrows pointing specifically to the places which have been written on the sign board (Ayantayo, 2016; Woo & Riget, 2020). Directional signs are imperatives since the public is to take certain actions without any possibility of consultation or compromise (Bi, 2017).

72

Yang, Chen, Wu, Easa, Lin and Zheng (2020) explain that directional signs help motorists and pedestrians locate places, buildings and events or programmes. Directional signs provide environmental supports to people, especially strangers and visitors in order for them to be able to specifically locate their routes (Dornbusch & Kawczynska, 1992 and Yang et al., 2020). Dornbusch and Kawczynska (1992) specifically mention that tourists usually depend on directional signs to familiarize themselves with the existence of local businesses, of the goods and services they offer, and of how best to access the businesses at a particular place.

4. 3. 2 Road or Street Signs

Figure 10 illustrates some road/street signs from the data of the study. Road or Street signs are signs elected on road sides to provide directions to motorists and pedestrians. At UCC, almost all the road or street signs come with an arrow. They also are brief and clearly written.

Figure 10: Road or Street Signs

73

UCC has on its campus several roads which lead to different places, as can be seen in Figure 10. In view of this, several roads or streets signs have been erected along roadsides at UCC. A road or street without a sign comes with difficulties for commuters or motorists to locate certain places (Akple & Biscoff, 2012; Boateng, Atobra-Acheampong, Agyeman & Gyamfi, 2016).

Most of the road signs come with arrows pointing directly to the places written on the sign while others are also pictograms. For instance, *Eyeson Close*, *Ribeiro Loop*, *Kwabena Sekyi Road*, and *William Amo Road* are some of the road signs with arrows attached to them. It can be seen from the signs that they bear individual's name. The names sometimes can be only a surname or the full name of the individual and if the road or street is not quite long, the words such as *Close* and *Loop* are added to the name. The idea is to make the inscription brief, specific and reader-friendly.

4. 3. 3 Warning Signs

Figure 11 illustrates some warning signs from the data of this study. Warning signs are signs which are placed at vantage areas and on roadsides to caution the behaviours of people. The texts of these warning signs are usually brief and boldly written.

74

Figure 11: Warning Signs

The warning signs that are found on UCC campus are mainly erected on roadsides, particularly at vantage places where everybody can easily see, as illustrated in Figure 11. Warning signs are found at vantage places to warn the general public about what one is not allowed upon entering the university's campus. It is clear from the examples given that the warning signs mainly target motorists and these motorists must comply accordingly. A warning sign such as *NO Hawking in this AREA* indicates that such an activity cannot be performed on UCC campus. Importantly, warning signs are characterized by caution, precision and conciseness in order to realize the intended purpose (Tajudeen et al., 2019).

Boateng et al. (2016) aver that warning signs provide forehand message to caution people about certain conditions that regulate a particular area.

75

4. 4 Public Signs Classified as Notices:

4. 4. 1 Announcements

The illustrated Figure 12 shows some announcement used as part of the data of this study. Announcements are messages printed on sheets to give information to a group of people. From Figure 12, the font sizes of the announcements are of readable sizes and the font type is Times New Roman which is mostly used for formal or official texts. Because these are university-produced announcements, therefore, the texts are characterized by formality, brevity, correctness and clarity. Some of the texts have been boldened suggesting that that they are of more importance than the other texts. Also, some of the notices appear with symbols to enhance the meaning of the text or to make the notices 'catchy'.

76
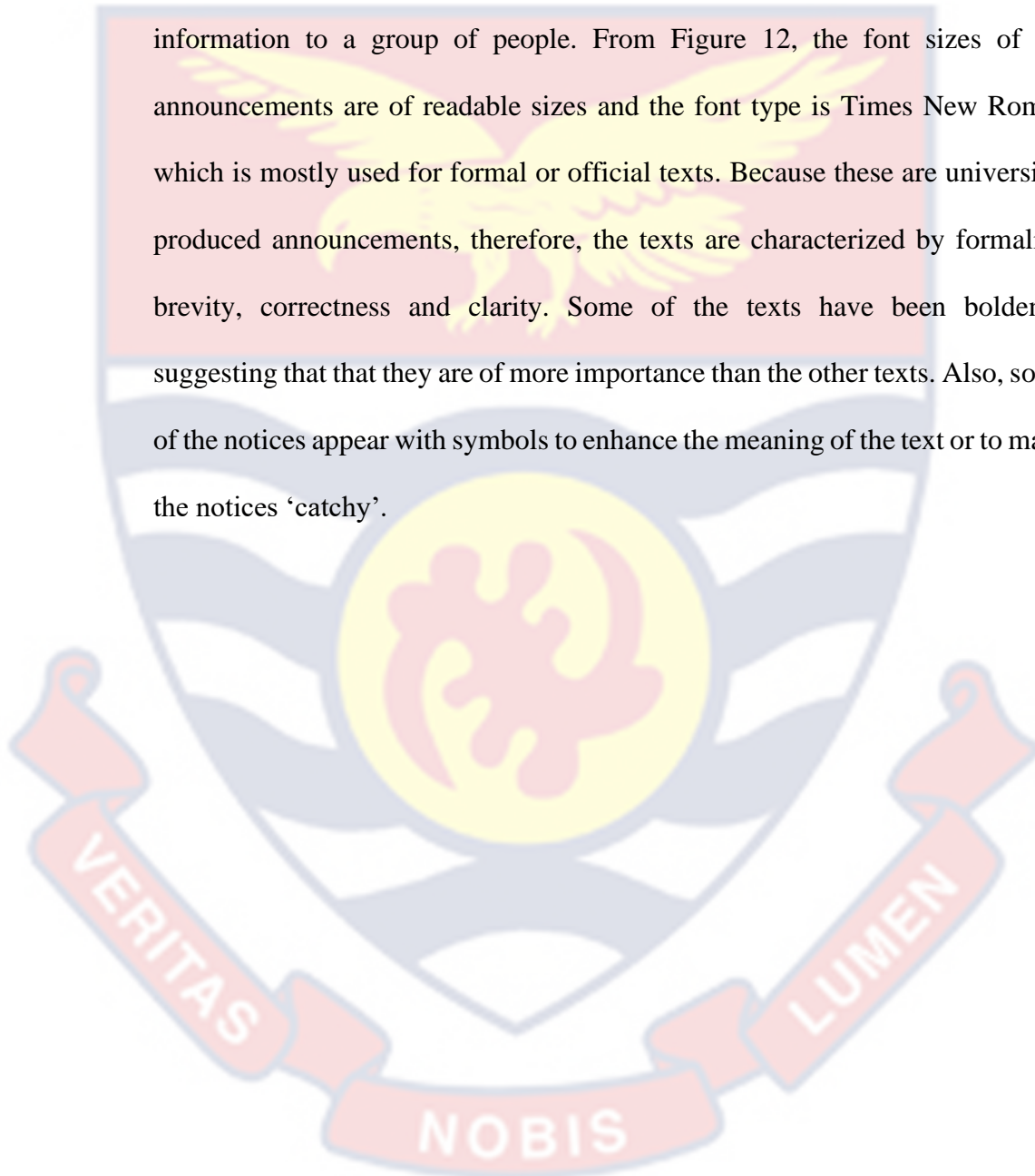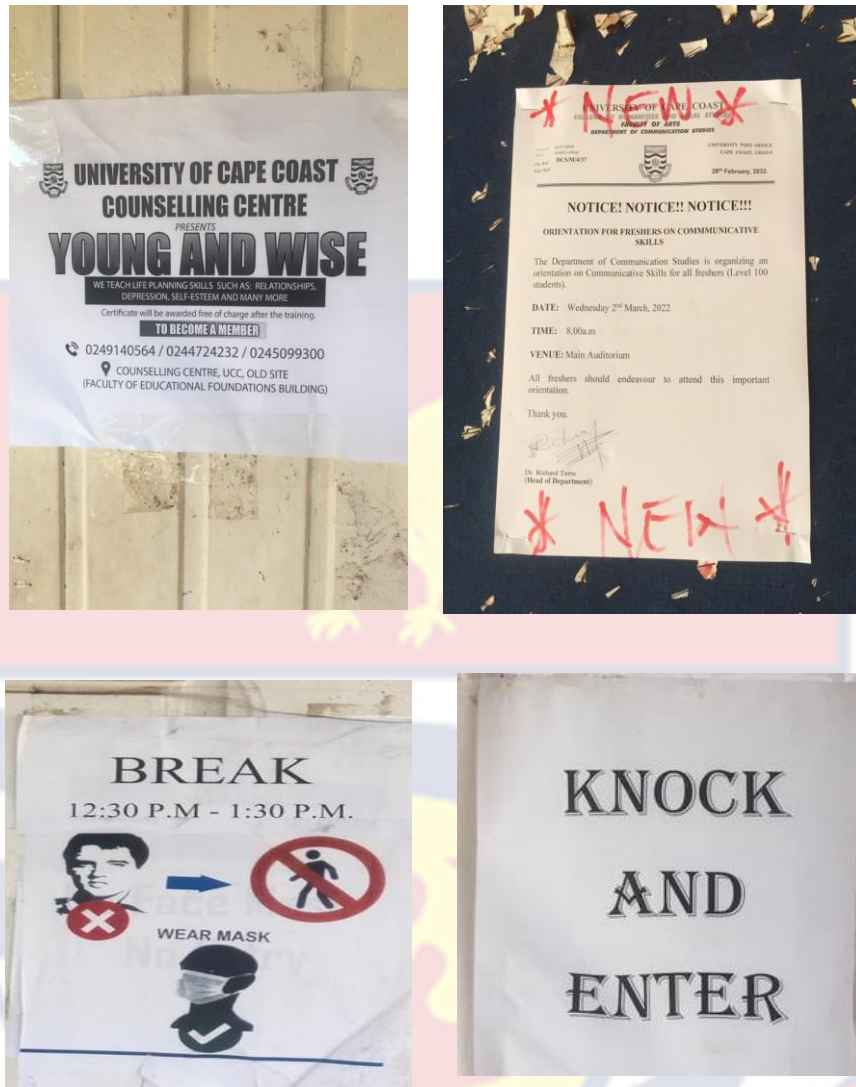
Figure 12: Announcements

Diverse forms of announcements are posted on notice boards in every department, faculty or school, and college to disseminate certain messages to the general public, especially lecturers and students, as can be seen in Figure 12. There are both indoor and public announcements, but this present study is limited to public announcements; that is, announcements which are easily accessible to the general public, lecturers and students, in particular. Also, the announcements are posted at vantage places to enhance accessibility. Announcements in whatever form are usually written in English, except announcement found at French, Ghanaian languages departments and

Confucius Institutes. This implies that most of the members of the university community understand English which is the medium of instruction and at the same time official language, in line with the language policy of the county, Ghana (Sarfo, 2012). This presupposes that every student and staff of the university should at least be able to communicate in English, including students offering programmes such as French, Ghanaian languages and Chinese.

Sometimes announcements like *No facemask, No entry*, *Knock And Enter* are also posted on some of the doors of lecturers and offices as well. The announcements which come with the negator element "No" prevent people from entering the room or office unless one has actually obeyed the notice on the door.

4. 4. 2 Posters

Figure 13 illustrates both top-down and bottom-up posters which constiute part of the data of this study. Posters are mostly printed sheet which contain texts and images. Posters appear in different forms, depending on the communicative purpose. There is usually an image or images and texts. This is done to enhance the understanding of a sign. Generally, the university produced posters contain the name of the university, emblem and motto of the unversity on the sign. Also, there is formality in the use of language and the colours are always selected from the university colours as illustrated in Figure 13 . Unlike the top-down posters, there is not always formality in the use of language on bottom-up signs. Usually, attention is paid to the visual elements more than the linguistic elements because they seek to persuade the viewers to attend a programme or to buy a product. Hence, more space is dedicated to visuals. From

78

Figure 13, the bottom-up sign is placed at the top right. It can be seen that it bears no UCC information such as the emblem.

Figure 13: Posters (Both Top-down and Bottom-up)

Posters constitute convenient and effective means to spread information to a large people (Amoakwah & Mensah, 2022; Nunyenge & Esena, 2013; and Schmidt, 2005).

The university authority and the individual people paste diverse posters on trees, walls, notice boards, floors and others to communicate information to the general public. However, the posters in Figure 13 are all posted on notice boards. These posters, comprising both top-down (the university's produced

79

signs) and bottom-up (private signs) serve different communicative purposes. The top-down posters are university-owned posters while the bottom-up posters are private-owned posters.

Posters are further categorized as a permanent and seasonal. Advertisement poster is an example of permanent poster while a campaign poster is an example of a seasonal poster. The latter is called seasonal posters since aspirants only paste such posters during election time. As soon as the election is held, few weeks after the election, one hardly finds such posters on campus unlike the permanent ones which are frequently found on notice boards.

Sometimes one could see funeral announcement posters on the departmental notice boards. These posters inform the members of the university about the demise of a student, lecturer, staff and even some renowned person in the country. Usually, if the dead is not a member of the university community, the deceased may be a member. While posters usually come with pictures, announcements do not or rather have few symbols or pictures. Posters of important programmes such as conferences, seminars and public lectures are mostly pasted at the various department notice boards.

4. 4. 3 Billboards

Figure 14 exemplifies some of the billboards which form part of the data of this study. Billboards are large boards which are mainly used for advertisement. The billboards at UCC comprise top-down and bottom-up. However, the top-down (university owned) billboards usually are produced in the university colours. They bear the name of the university, the emblem and the motto as constants. The texts are usually written in upper case to make them clear and reader-friendly. Also, there are more of linguistic elements than visual

80

elements. The top-down billboards usually contain educational information unlike the bottom-up which mostly contain advertising information. The bottom-up sign at the bottom of Figure 14, on the other hand, has more of visual elements than linguistic elements.

Figure 14: Billboards (Both Top-down and Bottom-up)

From Figure 14, the digital (electronic) billboard is at top the while those below are metallic billboards, each communicating different messages.

There are two digital billboards at UCC, one at Old Site and the other at New Site (Science), which display all kinds of information, especially educational. The other type, stationary billboards, are usually placed alongside roads, on streets and at junctions to be easily seen.

81

Private billboards are solely meant for advertising or commercial information since developers of these private billboards use this medium to advertise their products to the public. These billboards are mainly located at 'Science Market'. Few are found on the main campus, particularly New Site and Old Site. These billboards are elected by the financial institutions such as Zenith Bank, Prudential Bank and Fidelity Bank on campus. These institutions have obtained the necessary legal permission from the university authority to render their services to the general public, particularly members on UCC campus.

Azidor (2020, p. 41) explains, "billboards are seen as large outdoor structures typically located primarily on major highways, expressways, or principal arterials that command high-density consumer exposure (mostly vehicular traffic)". Azidor further explains that billboards can be categorized according to these types: painted, digital and multipurpose billboards.

Studies on billboards indicate that schools, companies, and business owners prefer billboards to other signages because of billboards' nature (Adjei, 2014; Dzade, 2020; Gorter, 2006; and Pavlenko, 2009).

4. 4. 4 Banners

Figure 15 highlights few of the banners that form part of the data of the present study. Banners are large printed fabrics used for conveying information. Banners appear in different forms. On UCC campus, the common ones are illustrated in Figure 15 below.

82

Figure 15: Banners

At UCC, there are various banners ranging from academic banners to advertising banners communicating diverse information to the members of the university community. Ultimately, since UCC is an educational institution, most of the banners are educational.

However, the other types of banners, which are private, are mostly advertising banners. They are sometimes displayed behind trees on UCC campus or in front of shops usually at 'Science Market'. Also, the various denominations such as The Church of Pentecost, University Interdenominational Church (UIC), Catholic Church, and Methodist Church, post banners on UCC campus. Normally, such banners contain elements like the name of the speaker(s), the purpose, the venue and time of the event. The bottom-up banners usually have images dominating the texts.

83

4. 4. 5 Plaques

The presented Figure 16 below shows some of the plaques that form part of the data of this study. Plaques are any artefacts which are usually attached on walls or façades of buildings. Plaques found in UCC are made of only texts which are boldly written in both upper and lower cases but mostly upper case. The plaques are not found on all buildings on campus. The ones represented in Figure 16 are some of the few found on the entire UCC campus.

Figure 16: Plaques

Plaques are attached to a wall or a façade of buildings for a particular purpose. At UCC, the plaques which are attached to a few buildings are usually square or rectangular ceramic shaped with inscriptions on them as illustrated in Figure 16. They often bear the name of the individual who commissioned the

84

building or the individual who contributed to the completion of the building in question. Sometimes the building in question is also dedicated to 'God'. For instance, the text: *To the Glory of God* is written at the top of the plaque. The texts appear in varied forms with regard to the font sizes and font styles. However, regardless of whatever fonts selected, the texts usually always appear clear, simple and readable. Largely the words 'commissioned' and 'funded' are commonly used on these plaques. The former is used when the building of a particular structure was spearheaded by the name on the plaque while the latter is used to refer to the person or organization who provided funds in putting up the structure. Nonetheless, sometimes both words can be found on a plaque. This means that the structure was commissioned and funded by different entities, as can be seen in the middle of the illustrated Figure 16.

Structurally, they appear in diverse forms, depending on the personality to commission the building. According to Vovk (2020), a "plaque is a slab of durable stone, metal or polymer material, perpetuating the memory of a person or event and is installed on the facades of buildings and structures related to historical events or the lives and activities of the immortals" (as cited in Vovk & Kudelko, 2022, p. 20).

4. 4. 6 Graffiti

Figure 17 highlights some of the graffiti that form part of this study. Graffiti are writings on walls. The graffiti that are found in UCC are usually found on walls and are written in both upper and lower cases and of readable font sizes. Some of them are written in different colours, especially those at UCC Basic Primary, to attract the students to read.

85

Figure 17: Graffiti (at University Basic School)

Figure 17 illustrates some of the graffiti in UCC, particularly at University Junior High and Basic School. Graffiti are not common on UCC campus. Interestingly, pupils or students at lower levels, especially those in the primary levels of education learn a lot through graffiti. These graffiti are designed attractively in order to arouse the interest of the students to read. Nonetheless, this study is limited to public or outdoor signs. Therefore, graffiti found at indoor places such as the washroom, are ignored since graffiti found in the various washrooms on UCC campus are not easily seen by the public unless one visits any of the available washrooms on campus.

Graffiti is explained as a kind of public writing, for which no formal feature is provided and which is generally unwanted (Cole, 1991; Gyasi Obeng, 2000). The graffiti at higher levels of educational institutions are mostly found

86

at the entrances of the institutions. However, a greater number of these graffiti are found at lavatories (Gyasi Obeng, 2000).

Regarding studies on graffiti, it is clear that people express views on issues such as love, relationship, social, and politics on walls of lavatory rooms and staircases as they claim that they have been denied access to the right platforms to express those issues (Gyasi Obeng, 2000; Nwoye, 1993). In view of that walls of buildings provide suitable platform to for people to air such issues apart from the educational benefits associated with the graffiti found in educational institutions.

4. 4. 7 Parking Lots, Shuttle Terminal and Transport Stations

Figure 18 provides details of some of the Parking Lots, Shuttle Terminal which form of the data of the present study. Parking Lots, Shuttle Terminal and Transport Stations are places where vehicles are parked. At UCC, parking lots and shuttle stations inscriptions are boldly written and they are usually made of texts without any visuals. The parking lots mostly specify the kind of person to use the them.

87

Figure 18: Parking Lots and Shuttle Terminal

Figure 18 indicates some parking lots and a shuttle station on UCC campus.

Parking lots provide specific places for parking vehicles, motors and bicycle. As can be seen in Figure 18, members of the University of Cape Coast community, particularly staff and lecturers, are given particular places with their position boldly written on sign board to park their vehicles. This is done to prevent people from parking at unauthorized places and to create convenient, attractive, and safe environment for people, as put forward by Shah (2016).

It is worth mentioning that the names of individual staff and lecturers are not written but the position he or she holds. For instance, *The Dean*, *Faculty of Arts* and *The Head*, *Department of English* and others. Two shuttle terminals, one at Old Site and another at New Site; can be found on the campus UCC. These two terminals are meant for the buses which convey people, particularly students, to and from one place to another. The terminals have places where

88

students can sit while waiting for a bus. The buses usually operate on campus. Also, there are two transport stations on UCC campus, one at Old Site and the other at New Site. These stations are specifically meant for private individuals.

According to Davis, Pijanowski, Robinson and Engel (2010), parking lots are also called 'paved parking surfaces'. They pointed out that it is quite difficult and expensive to obtain a parking lot in large cities for parking. However, the parking lots at UCC are not as expensive as Davis et al. (2010) claim, since they were not constructed with sophisticated materials.

4. 4. 8 Door Name Plates

Figure 19 below shows some of the door name plates used as part of the data of this study. Door name plates are plates with names on them that are mounted on doors. Figure 19 provides details of some door name plates in UCC from both academic and non-academic units. They are boldly written in upper case which have white backgrounds. The texts appear in blue but the names of the departments or schools appear in blue with white inscriptions.

89
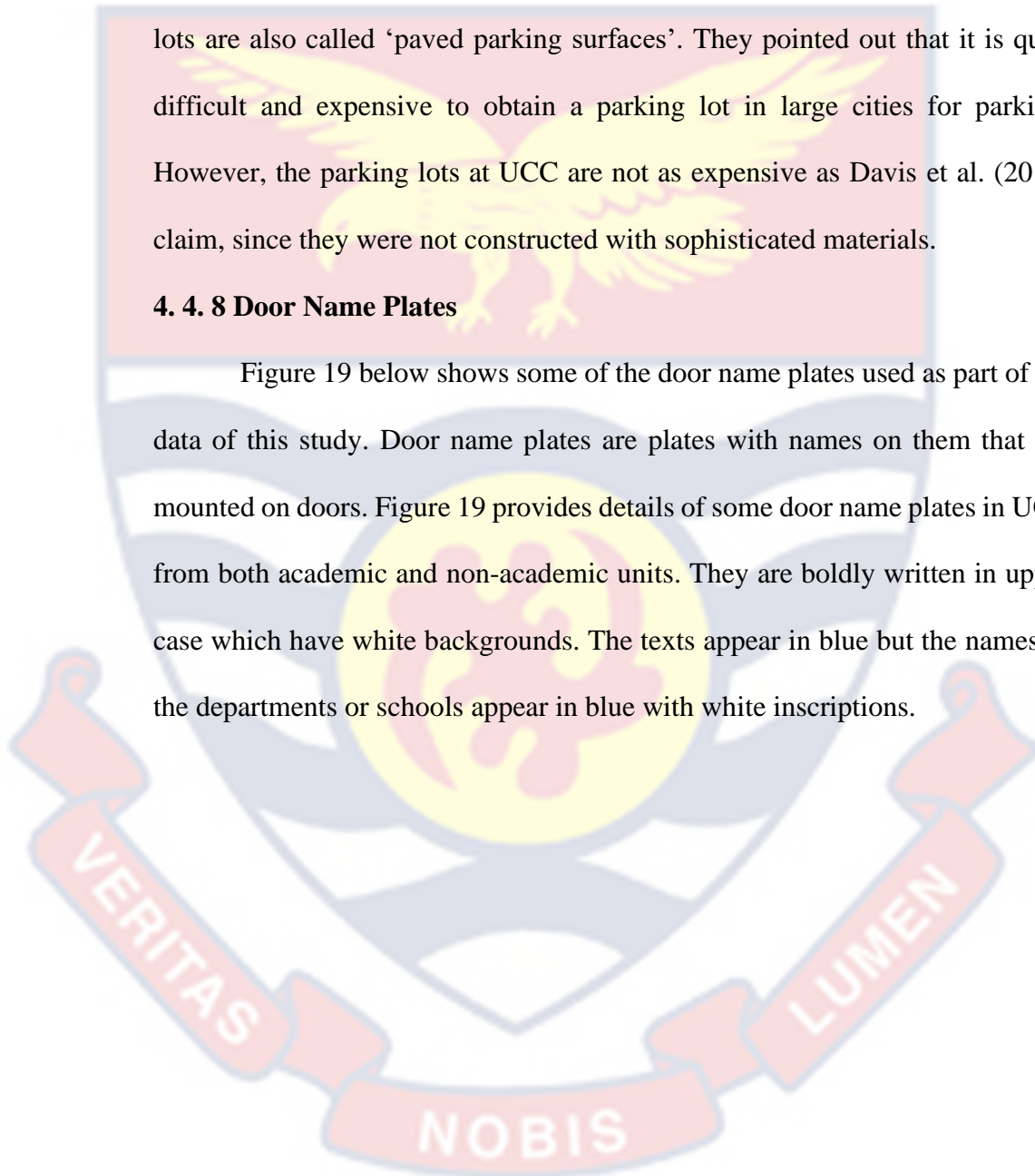
Figure 19: Door Name Plates

Figure 19 highlights how some of the offices and rooms on UCC campus are named. Door name plates are mounted on doors of lecturers, staff, offices, and rooms for identification. The names, especially of lecturers and staff, are written based on the rank or position of the individual. The door name plates are updated as and when the rank or position of a lecturer and a non-academic staff is changed. Table 3 below illustrates some of the door name plates found at academic, non-academic/administrative units and both units.

90

Table 3: Kinds of Door Name Plates

Academic units	Non-academic/Administrative units	Both Units
Prof. J. B. A. Afful Department of English	Directorate of Academic Affairs Admissions Section	Gents
Dr. William G. Cantah Department of Sociology and Anthropology	Office of the Pro-Vice Chancellor	
Micheal Y.W. Serwormoo (PhD) Media and journalism studies Department of communication studies	Office of the Registrar	Ladies Washroom
Dr. John Abraham Department of Conservation Biology & Entomology	Finance Officer College of Humanities and Legal Studies	Toilet
Dr. Frank K. Achkah Department of Crop Science	Directorate of Academic Affairs Students Record Section	
Mr. James Afriyie Department of Biomedical Sciences	Office of the Provost College of Agriculture and Natural Sciences	
Entomology Museum Reading Room		

These names are mounted on almost every door to direct the general public to specific people, offices and other places. Sometimes more than one name is mounted on the door, suggesting that particular office is shared by the lecturers or staff in question. Usually, for lecturers, the name comes first, followed by the discipline/department of study. Sometimes the doors are numbered alongside the names. However, administrative units often have no

individual name on the door name plate, but the administrative name like *Directorate of Academic Affairs* is rather mounted in front of the door as illustrated in Figure 19. Door name plate labelled *Washroom* is found at almost every building on UCC.

However, Door name plates named "Entomology Museum" and "Reading Room" are usually found at academic units since these places provide academic support to lecturers and students in particular.

4. 5 Public Signs Classified as Clothing:

4. 5. 1 Wearables

Wearables are the items that people wear. Wearables at UCC are produced from the university colours and have the name of the university, emblem and logo in them. The wearables come in different kinds, as can be seen in Figure 20.

Figure 20: Wearables

The things humans wear sometimes contain information which scholars such as Davids (2017) and Korang (2011) refer to as 'inscriptions'. Several ideas,

92

issues, identities, and feelings are expressed to readers and viewers through inscriptions in the things people wear. These inscriptions can be in a form of text, symbols, pictures, pictograms and others (Korang, 2011).

As can be seen in Figure 20, the wearables are usually made up of the colours: red, yellow, blue and white. Mostly, these colours together with the university's logo are used in designing UCC items. The composition of the colours, the logo, the name of the university and others together gives beauty to the clothing. These clothing are often, but not solely, used by the members of the university community. People who are neither staff, students nor lecturers in UCC also use these forms of clothing. Aside from the clothing which contains reference to the university at large, there are also other forms of clothing such as college or faculty cloth and lacoste, residential hall cloth and lacoste, faculty cloth and others.

However, this present study is limited to wearables which represent the university at large but not those which represent the various bodies or units within the university community.

The inscriptions in the things people wear and on other things like cars have attracted the attention of several scholars such as Davids (2017), Korang (2011) Nartey (2003), Nosonovsky (2006) and Prah (1998). Wearables, as used in this study, include clothes, hats, ties and lacostes.

93

4. 6 Public Signs Classified as Souvenirs:

4. 6. 1 Miscellaneous

Miscellaneous refer to other items which cannot be classified under any of the categories. Figure 21 represents different kinds of miscellaneous from the data of the present study. They come in different designs consistent with the university colours, the name of the university, the emblem and motto.

Figure 21: Miscellaneous

According to Figure 21, key holders, hand bags, pennants and brooches, among others, constitute the miscellaneous used by the members of the university community. These items also help in sending information about UCC to the world; in particular, they advertise the university to the world. Every UCC

94

item has the institutional semiotic resources such as the university emblem, the motto and the logo. These miscellaneous items are usually given to visitors such as ambassadors, delegates from organizations, delegates from other universities, alumni and other eminent people who visit UCC, as souvenirs. Freshers whether undergraduate or postgraduate students are also given similar souvenirs.

The finding of the first research question is similar to Johnson's (2012) study. Johnson's categorization of signs bears resemblance to the categories in the present study. For instance, Johnson found warning signs, billboards, posters and graffiti as the range of public signs at the Public Rail Transport System in the Western Cape. Meanwhile, Johnson used different terms, 'official' and 'non-official' signs for the categories. The official sign categories included station names, information, identification and regulatory-prohibitory-warning signs while the non-official sign categories involved shop fronts, billboards, posters, other adverting signs and graffiti which is quite different from what constitutes the signs in the categories of the present study as illustrated in Table 2.

However, Johnson's (2012) study was conducted in a non-academic institution, so the presence of Bottom-up signs dominates Top-signs. But in the present study the Top-down signs dominate the Bottom-signs because of the nature of the setting of this study, academic. These studies (Adjei, 2014; Abondgia & Foncha, 2017; Davids, 2017; Draper, 2010; Haynes, 2012; Jane-Francis & Foncha, 2014; Korang, 2011 and Quaye, 2011) were conducted in academic institutions, particularly tertiary educational institutions similar to this study but their findings contrast the findings of this study. Some of the aforementioned studies investigated the linguistic landscapes of some

95

universities, focusing on the multilingualism with respect to language ideologies or polices of the various universities (Abondgia & Foncha, 2017; Draper, 2010; Haynes, 2012; Jane-Francis & Foncha, 2014). For instance, Draper (2010) examined the LL of Thai University and found that the development of multilingual signages on campus is largely welcome by students because of the different linguistic backgrounds of the students.

Others also examined notices and inscriptions on billboards, T shirts, wristbands and others in UCC and Takoradi Technical University (Adjei, 2014; Davids, 2017; Korang, 2011; and Quaye, 2011), yet as I have already indicated, their findings bear no resemblance to this study. For instance, Adjei (2014) investigated inscriptions on billboards at UCC and found that some of the inscriptions contain concord errors and ambiguity. Therefore, the inscriptions sometimes become vague. Arguably, even though Adjei conducted his study at UCC, it seems he investigated inscriptions on Bottom-up billboards. The present study was not limited to Bottom-up billboards but covered the entire public signs. Also, the present study did not pay attention to in-depth analysis of inscriptions of billboards.

Again, Davids (2017) found that people wear wristbands to communicate love, affiliation, religious belief, life experiences and aspirations to the public. Similarly, Davids (2107) investigated only an aspect of the signages which constitute the data of the present study. Therefore, his findings are limited to messages that wristbands communicate but the present study looked at all the signages present at UCC.

4. 7 Communicative Functions of Public Signs in University of Cape Coast

This section of the data analysis answers the second research question:

What are the communicative functions of the public signs in University of Cape Coast?

The second research question sought to analyze the communicative functions of the public signs on UCC campus. Given the number of different public signs present at UCC, it is obvious that the public signs will perform a number of different communicative functions. Public signs at UCC are aimed at the members of the university community and visitors who visit the university. Therefore, the various signs are purposely designed in such a way that their communicative functions will be attained. The Top-down and Bottom-up signs both perform similar communicative functions since they are all aimed at the members of the university community, especially staff, lecturers and students.

Table 4 presents highlights of the communicative functions of public signs, drawing insight from Landry and Bourhis' (1997) functions of LL.

97

Table 4: Communicative Functions of Public Signs

NO.	Public sign	Communicative Functions	Category
1	Names of colleges	Identificatory, memorializing, symbolic, informational	Top-down
2	Names of faculties/ Schools/Institutes/ Centres	Identificatory, informational, symbolic	Top-down
3	Names of departments	Identificatory, informational, symbolic	Top-down
4	Names of lecture Theatre/auditoriums/ conference room/halls	Identificatory, informational, memorializing,	Top-down
5	Names of residential halls/ guest houses	Identificatory, informational, memorializing, Symbolic	Top-down
6	Names of government buildings/institutions, restaurants	Identificatory, informational, memorializing, Symbolic	Top-down
7	Names of non-government institutions/shops/eating places	Identificatory, informational, symbolic	Bottom-up
8	Directional signs	Directional, informational, symbolic	Top-down
9	Road/street signs	Identificatory, informational, symbolic	Top-down
10	Warning signs	Regulatory, informational, symbolic	Top-down
11	Notices	Informational, invitational, symbolic	Top-down
12	Posters	Informational, invitational, advertising/ marketing, Symbolic	Top-down/Bottom-up
13	Billboards	Informational, invitational, advertising/marketing, Symbolic	Top-down/Bottom-up

98

14	Banners	Informational, invitational, advertising, symbolic	Top-down/Bottom-up
15	Graffiti	Identificatory, informational, pedagogical, symbolic	Top-down
16	Plaques	Identificatory, Memorializing, informational symbolic	Top-down
17	Parking lots/ shuttle terminals/ transport stations	Identificatory, informational, symbolic	Top-down
18	Door name plates	Identificatory, informational, symbolic	Top-down
19	Wearables	Identificatory, informational, symbolic	Top-down
20	Miscellaneous	Identificatory, informational, symbolic	Top-down

Regarding the communicative functions of public signages, Table 4 demonstrates the diverse realizations of the functions of public signages on UCC campus. Subsequently, I discuss these functions by engaging the appropriate illustrative data and relevant literature.

4. 7. 1 Informational Function

The informational function is analyzed from two perspectives. First, according to Landry and Bourhis (1997), LL serves to inform in-group and out-group members of the linguistic features, territorial limit and language boundaries of the region they have entered.

Public signs on UCC campus provide several pieces of information to people, especially the members of the university, the kinds of services and activities which the university renders and performs. This means that the language which is written on the various public signs found at UCC can also be used to obtain services and information. Another informational function has to

99

do with the diverse pieces of information the university community gets access

to through the different public signs on the university's campus. Usually, almost

all the signs on campus seek to provide information to the public. Signs such as

announcements, posters, billboards, and graffiti communicate varied

information to the public.

100

Figure 22: Announcement, Poster and Billboard

In essence, the information provided on the various public signs seek, to help the individual to know, recognize and identify lecturers, places, things, roads/streets, activities, events, programmes (whether academic and non-academic) and others at UCC (Yang, 2009). Figure 22 illustrates the informational function of the public signs on UCC campus:

101

4. 7. 2 Symbolic Function

It is worth realizing that the kind of languages which are present on LL of an area help to define the ingroup people of an area (Landry & Bourhis, 1997). They pointed out that the use of a particular language indicates the vitality, power and attachment associated with the language. It is obvious that most of the signs in the present study are inscribed in English (Adika, 2012; Owu-Ewie, 2006; and Sarfo, 2012) since English is both the official language (the language of education, law, media, government and administration) and the medium of instruction at tertiary educational institutions in Ghana.
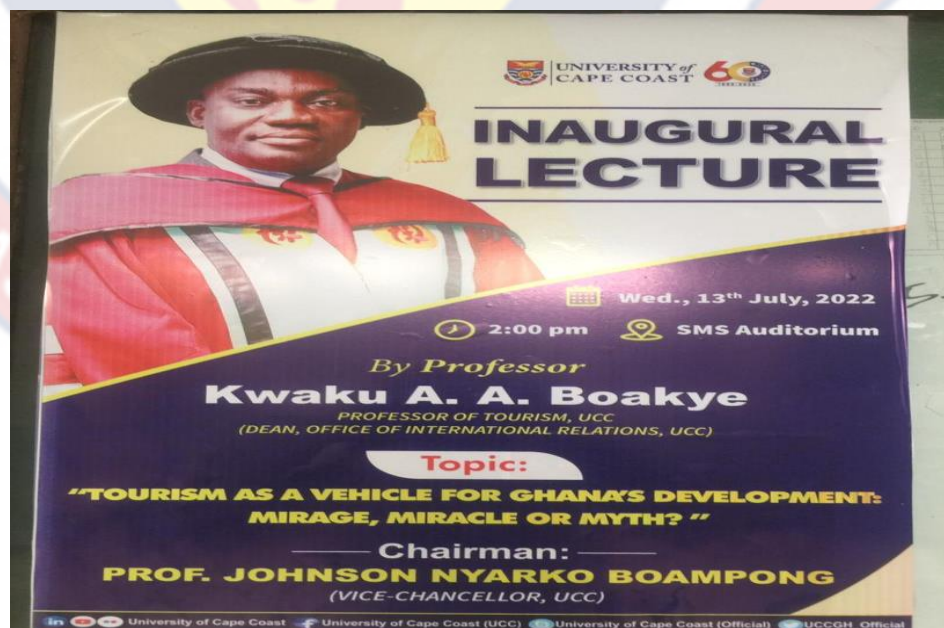
Figure 23: Billboard and Poster

102

Mostly, the use of English on most of the public signages in all the categories, as shown in Figure 23 presents the growth of English and the vitality it has gained over the other indigenous languages in the country (Anderson et al., 2020; Landry & Bourhis, 1997). Therefore, the use of English on almost all the public signs reflects the language policy of the university. In effect, the use of English provides some kind of international environment for members of the university community to respond and contribute to the space they inhabit. Also, English is used as a lingua franca due to the multilingual nature of the setting of this study.

4. 7. 3 Identificatory Function

The public signs such as names of colleges, names of faculties and schools, names of departments, names of lecture theatres/conference rooms/auditoriums, names of residential halls/guest houses, names of government or private buildings/institutions/shops/restaurants, door name plates and wearables, among others, provide identificatory function.

103

Figure 24: Names of Buildings and Door Name Plate

Particular names such as *College of Health and Allied Sciences (CoHAS), Department of Computer Science & Information Technology, Adehye Hall, C. A. Ackah*, *Sam Jonah*, *Mrs. Korantema M. Tsegah* and others as illustrated in Figure 24, have been boldly written in front of each building and each door to identify one college, faculty or school, department, government or private buildings and lecturer from the other. This is done to provide accurate and specific information to members of the university community and visitors who come to the university in order to familiarize themselves with their new environment.

According to Charmaz (2006), names convey meanings and distinctions. In view of that the names given to some of the buildings and roads or streets on

104

UCC campus help to locate particular lecturers and places where they need help without necessarily moving from one building to the other in an attempt to locating a particular building, place person. This serves to perform a deictic function, which is presented by Jakobson (1960) as referential function.

4. 7. 4 Memorializing Function

Some of the public signs provide historical information to help remember certain eminent individuals. The development and growth of the university do not rely solely on the government of Ghana. Stakeholders and philanthropists from Ghana and beyond have contributed and are still contributing to the development and growth of the university. In view of this, the university authority honours such people or organization by naming some of its buildings, roads or streets and places after them. It is a way of showing appreciation to such people as illustrated in Figure 25.

Figure 25: Residential Halls, Road/Street Sign and Plaque

The university authority mainly selects names of people who have contributed and those who are still contributing in diverse ways to the development of the university and uses such names to name its buildings and roads/streets. For instance, from Figure 25, the sign at the top of the illustrated Figure bears the name, Kwame Nkrumah Hall. The hall was named after Kwame Nkrumah because he established University of Cape Coast (UCC). The lecture theatre which is named after the organization, VALCO TRUST means that that organization funded the building of the hall. These names given to lecture theatres and other buildings and roads or streets help to acknowledge their unflinching support and to historicize them for the current generation and generations yet unborn to know people who contributed and who are still contributing to the development and growth of the university. It subtly entices potential donors to support the university so that their names will be used in naming a building or a road. Also, the various plaques on UCC campus significantly help to historicize people who have generously contributed and are still contributing to the development and growth of the university.

Huebner and Phoocharoenil (2017) and Train (2016) indicate that memorial artifacts such as plaques in the public spaces help to remember survivors, families, friends and concerned citizens who in diverse ways selflessly contributed to the growth of a particular society. Huebner and Phoocharoenil (2017) for instance, mention that the meaning of a memorial artifacts is derived from where it is located, similar to the notion of LL proposed by Scollon and Scollon (2003). Jonson (2012) also claims that naming an object, a place and a building is done to acknowledge their effort or support and to preserve history.

4. 7. 5 Directional Function

Some public signs have a directional function. Without intending to compel or restrict, they provide guiding services to people. Bi (2017) indicates that a text and an arrow together on a sign provide direction to help people locate a place or a building as can be seen in the illustrative Figure 26. These directional signs imply providing the service's material as a result, not imposing any requirements on the general public. The provision of directional signs on campus helps in shaping certain social realities since they facilitate easier movement (Yang, 2009).
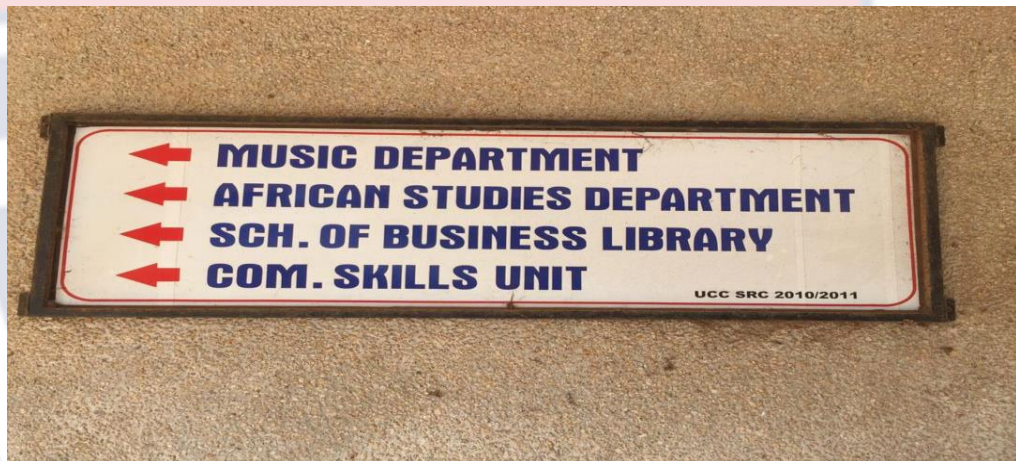
Figure 26: Directional Sign

As I have already indicated, the language on these directional signs is simple, concise and straightforward, among others, in order to serve the intended purpose. This assists in preventing vehicular and human traffics as people will be able to access specific locations without necessarily moving to and from one place to another.

4. 7. 6 Advertising/Marketing/Promotional Function

The terms 'advertising' and 'marketing', and 'promotional' are used interchangeably in this study. Yang (2009) avers that public signage with an advertising function can commonly be found at shops, supermarkets, trade

shows, business groups, and pedestrian malls. Public signs such as billboards, banners, and posters, be it top-down or bottom-up signs, persuade future customers about the supplied goods, services or activities. These public signs because of their appealing nature, are able to persuade viewers to buy a product (Agyarkoh, 2017). As pointed out by Cenoz and Gorter (2009), advertising signs seek to inform the public about the location of a store or the type of goods and services that can either be bought or obtained at the location.

Figure 27: Digital/Electronic Billboard

At UCC, public signs that seek to advertise are few because of the academic nature of the setting. However, the electronic billboard illustrated in Figure 27 advertises a number of goods and services. Also, the other marketing signages are mostly found at *Science market*. Business men and women at this place advertise such of goods computers, phones, clothes, and food items as well as services like computer repair, phone repair, hairdo, and commercial printing through public signs. It is through these public signages that business owners get the public or customers to know the nature of their goods and services (Azidor, 2020; Inkoom, 2015; Nurudeen, Ogungbe & Zakariyah, 2021;

108

and Williams, 2016). Sometimes private posters advertising certain products are also seen on campus.

On UCC campus, certain significant goods and services such as (books, computers etc.) and (health and career services etc.) respectively are advertised on the digital billboards for the members of the university community to access them. For instance, Figure 27, shows the information on UCC ranking, as a way to advertise UCC to the world. Also, members of the university community advertise UCC to the world through the wearables and souvenirs that they wear and use inside and outside the university campus.

4. 7. 7 Invitational Function

Public signages, apart from the information they provide to the general public, also serve to invite the general public, especially, lecturers and students to certain programmes or events. For instance, Viva voce announcement, and Seminar and Conference posters aim to invite the members of the university community to the programmes or events in question. Normally, these top-down public signs, particularly posters and announcements are discipline-specific; therefore, they are mostly posted on the various departments' notice boards and on other notice boards, where necessary. The illustrated Figure 28 below clearly specifies the college, faculty and the department which organized the conference.

109
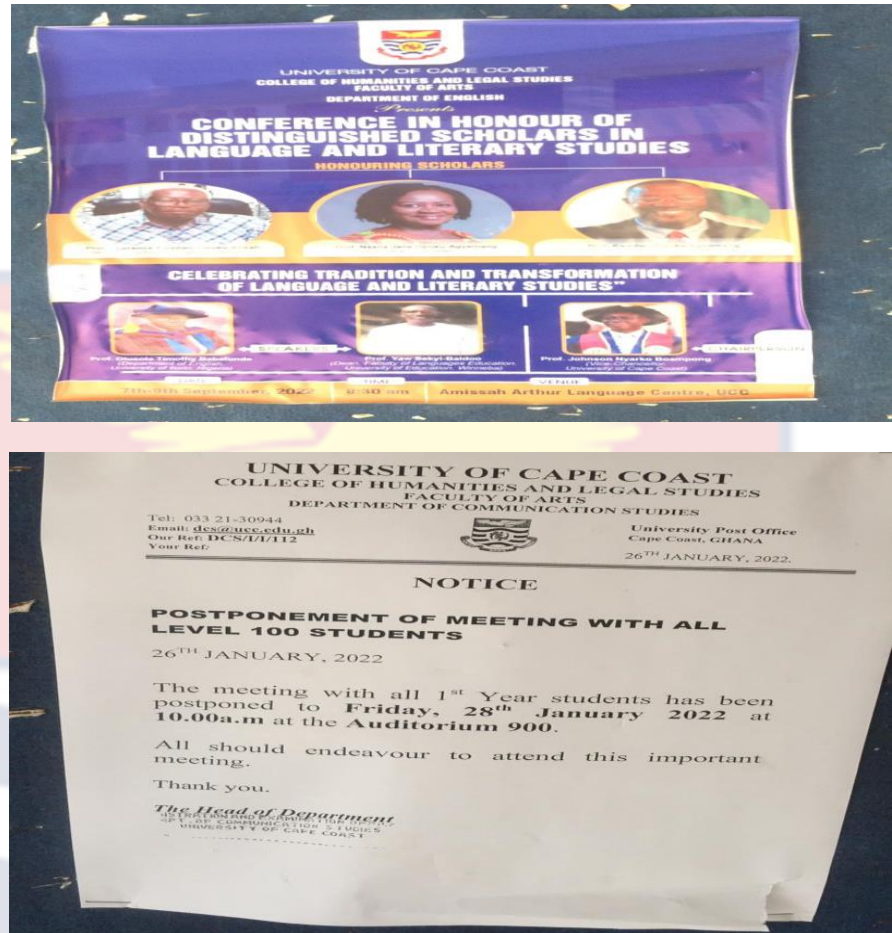
Figure 28: Poster and Announcement

Moreover, the salient features as date, time, venue and the word *meeting* on the announcement seek to communicate a sense of invitation (Scollon & Scollon, 2003). This is due to the fact that these salient features indicate details of a particular event or programme scheduled to be attended. In an academic institution, programmes such as seminar, conference, anniversary, and viva voce among others are meant to be attended. In the light of this the use of such words on some public signs tend to convey invitational information to the staff and students, in particular, of the university community.

4. 7. 8 Regulatory Function

Public signs, in whatever form, are meant for human consumption. Some of the public signs at UCC such as warning signs are mostly meant to regulate

110

the behaviours of its members so as to prevent its members from performing certain unacceptable and illegal activities such as hawking on campus (Tajudeen, Awoniyi, Fatimo & Odusanya, 2019). For instance, warning signs have been erected at vantage places to restrict and direct people to act in a certain way, as illustrated in Figure 29 below.

Figure 29: Warning Signs

Usually, the warning signs commence with the negative words "No" and "Don't" which seek to exert some control and have legislative control over its members (Zheng, 2021, p. 492). This is due to the fact that the university authority wields such legal power to prohibit people from performing certain undesirable actions on its campus. The use of the negator element "No", as illustrated in Figure 29, restricts people from performing those activities. It means that failure to comply with these protocols attracts sanctions from the university authority. Also, the use of imperatives such as *Drive Carefully* on some of the warning signs seek to command the staff and students to act in a

111

certain way on the university's campus. This is in line Jacobson's (1960) conative and Halliday's (1973) regulatory functions of language.

It is assumed that if members of the university community abide by the rules and regulations in the signages erected on campus will result in a safe, serene and conducive environment which will in turn promote teaching, learning and research activities (Meis & Kashima, 2017).

4. 7. 9 Pedagogical Function

Another significant communicative function public signs at UCC perform is to teach a section of its members. Public signage can provide a significant medium for teaching and learning (Shohamy & Waksman, 2008). The creation of an environment that represents the linguistic repertoires of the inhabitants provides avenues for teaching and learning the languages on the signages, as claimed by Cenoz and Gorter (2008); Huebner (2016) and Mahemuti, 2018).

Figure 30: Graffiti

112

At University Primary School, to be precise, a lot of graffiti are found on the walls of the school. A few are seen at University Junior High School while it is usually uncommon to see graffiti on the main university campuses. However, the graffiti on the main UCC campuses are mostly found indoors such as the lavatories; so, the graffiti found at the various lavatories cannot form part of the data of the present study since these graffiti are not easily seen by the public. Graffiti in educational institutions help in teaching and learning as illustrated in Figure 30. Students' speaking skills are developed as they read the inscriptions on walls (Brown, 2005; Malinowski, 2016). This is due to the fact that the graffiti found in the environment represent the language used as medium of instruction in the classroom. For instance, Malinowski (2016) indicates that as students read the messages on the walls of the school, they tend to acquire the languages faster. Not only do they acquire the language faster but also, they obtain knowledge, as suggested by Avramidis and Drakopoulou (2012) and Mahemuti (2018).

Thus far, it has been found that public signs, both top-down and bottom-up at UCC perform a number of significant communicative functions such as informational, symbolic, identificatory, memorializing, directional, advertising/marketing/promotional, invitational, regulatory and pedagogical. The finding of the present study is similar to the functions of public signs presented in these studies (Bi, 2017; Ge, 2013; Yang, 2009 and Zheng, 2021). Yang (2009), for instance, indicates directing, restricting, compelling, prompting, advertising, and public interest publicizing as the functions performed by public signs. It is obvious that these functions such as directing,

113

restricting and advertising overlap with some of the functions in the present study, regardless of the cultural, social and geographical differences.

Comparing the findings of the present study, to the functions of public signs presented by Bi (2017), Ge (2013), Susini, Ana and Sujaya (2021), Yang (2009) and Zheng (2021), it is worth mentioning that the communicative functions of public signs are socially and culturally specific. This brings to bear several and different realizations of functions of public signs. Social and cultural considerations help to achieve the intended purpose of signs in general (Susini, Ana & Sujaya, 2022).

Tajudeen et al. (2019) claim that public signs such as cautionary notices are said to be utterances that perform actions. Therefore, they found that cautionary notices usually perform assertive and directive functions because of the intended purpose of these signs. In the present study, warning signs contain utterances which seek to instruct people to perform some actions. In this sense, they can be said to be assertive as indicated by Tajudeen et al. (2019). In view of that, it is believed that Tajudeen's et al. (2019) study and the present study are similar in terms of the functions which cautionary notices and warning signs perform.

Azidor (2020) found that public signs, particularly billboards, perform referential, conative, and poetic functions. These functions form part of Jakobson's (1960) six functions of language. The referential function corresponds to the context and describes a situation, object or mental state. The descriptive statements of the referential function consist of definite descriptions and deictic words, objects or mental state. The conative function engages the addressee directly and is best illustrated by vocatives and imperatives. The

114

poetic function focuses on the message for its own sake and is the operative function in poetry as well as slogans (as cited in Azidor, 2020).

The warning signs in the present study seek to warn members of the university community not to perform certain actions. Jakobson calls this 'conative function'. The wearables such as UCC clothes, lacoste, and tie worn by members of the university community tend to say something about UCC since these wearables contain emblem, and motto unique, to the university. This is what Jakobson refers to as referential function. It can, therefore, be argued that the functions billboards at Ho perform (Azidor, 2020) can be likened to the functions of some of the public signs on UCC campus.

It is obvious that a particular public sign, for example, a poster can serve more than one communicative function. Generally, the diverse information communicated through the public signs help in promoting and enhancing effective teaching and learning at UCC. Importantly, when interpreted signs satisfy the group's social and psychological conditions and successfully convey their behavioural obligations, the application function of a public sign is realized (Amenador & Wang, 2022).

4. 7. 10 Chapter Summary

The chapter analyzed and discussed the range of public signs present at University of Cape Coast and their communicative functions. The findings revealed that UCC has six main categories of public signages. These public signs at UCC perform seven main functions. Interestingly, a particular public sign, such as a poster can perform more than one function, so it can be said to be multifunctional.

115

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5. 0 Introduction

The concluding chapter offers a closure of the entire study. Specifically, the chapter begins with a summary of the study, methods and approaches adopted in the study and then proceeds to highlight key findings of the study. This is followed by the conclusions and implications drawn from the study. The chapter ends with recommendations for further research.

5. 1 Summary of Research

The aim of this study was to investigate the linguistic landscape of University of Cape Coast (UCC). In the light of this, the study sought to address two relevant concerns. First, it aimed to describe the range of public signs present at University of Cape Coast. The second was to investigate the communicative functions of the public signs in University of Cape Coast.

To this end, the study employed Scollon and Scollon's (2003) The Place Semiotics Theory and Landry and Bourhis' (1997) Informational and Symbolic Functions of LL as the theoretical lenses. Scollon and Scollon's (2003) theory concerns the presentation of language in the material world. Scollon and Scollon (2003) recommend that the placement of signs should reflect the sociocultural orientations of people. They claim that signs are socially and culturally shaped. They further suggest that the placement of a particular language on either a bilingual or multilingual sign as well as key features such as font size and font colour may add to the importance attached to a particular language. Landry and Bourhis' (1997) Informational and Symbolic functions of LL also concern the basic functions that public signages perform.

116

The study employed qualitative research design. This type of design is interested in obtaining and explaining meaning from signs such as words or texts, pictures and/or observable behaviour. The specific qualitative approach adopted by the study was content analysis complemented by descriptive statistics, including frequency counts and percentage distributions to support the qualitative design used in discussing the signages.

In order to answer the research questions, I observed and took pictures of all the publicly displayed signs on University of Cape Coast campus. Subsequently, I grouped, classified and named the signs accordingly drawing insights from the following studies: Scollon and Scollon (2003) and Landry and Bourhis (1997).

5. 2 Key Findings

The study recorded some key findings for each of the two research questions posed in this study. First, regarding the range of public signs present at University of Cape Coast, I found that UCC campus is occupied with several public signs which are categorized mainly as Names of Public and Private Structures, Navigational Signs, Notices, Clothing and Souvenirs.

The second key finding is that the public signs at UCC perform a number of communicative functions. I found that the public signs at UCC perform the following communicative functions: identificatory, memorializing, directional, advertising/marketing/promotional, invitational, regulatory, and pedagogical in addition to the functions of LL that Landry and Bourhis (1997) have found in the past, namely informational and symbolic.

Also, the fact that almost all the public signages are written in English serves to inform the in-group and out-group members of the linguistic situation of the area (Landry & Bourhis, 1997).

The results also suggest that a particular sign such as a poster can be multifunctional. That is, a poster can serve informational, symbolic and invitational functions at the same time.

5. 3 Implications of the Study

Based on the findings of this study, a number of implications are consequently discovered.

The first implication of the study is the contribution it makes to the scholarship on Linguistic Landscape Studies (LLS) since scholars and researchers mainly explored the LL of urban areas, neglecting the rural areas and tertiary educational institutions in particular. This stems from the fact that scholars have paid little attention to the LL of University of Cape Coast in particular. The few studies conducted at University of Cape Coast focused on certain aspects of LL such as billboards and notices. While these studies briefly examine aspects of the LL of UCC, they do not present a holistic knowledge of the LL of UCC. For instance, Adjei (2014) examined the inscriptions on billboards and found that the inscriptions contained grammatical errors and ambiguity while Dzade (2020) also found that advertisements on billboards contained lexical hybridization. Through a systematic analysis of the LL of UCC, the present study demonstrates that there are several public signs at UCC and these public signs perform various communicative functions. In this sense, the study serves as a ready source of material to those who may need information regarding the LL of University of Cape Coast.

Second, the present study confirms Scollon and Scollon's (2003) claim that signs are socially and culturally shaped. What this study has done as far as the theory is concerned is to observe the various signages on UCC campus and find out what communicative purposes they serve. The university authority carefully designs and erects or pastes signs in accordance with the communicative functions of the message or information of the sign. This implies that a particular sign can be interpreted or understood, depending on the place it is positioned, thus, context-based (Scollon & Scollon, 2003). The study has shown that Scollon and Scollon's (2003) The Place Semiotics Theory can be applied in diverse domains in the analysis of signs at large. Hence, this study adds to the existing studies on the use of the theory in question from the view point of LL. Also, this study has implication for Landry and Bourhis' (1997) Informational and Symbolic Functions of LL. The present study has developed further the main functions of LL that Landry and Bourhis (1997) have identified in the past. This explains that aside informational and symbolic functions of LL, public signs can perform other communicative functions. In view of this, the present study has expanded the purview of the theory.

Lastly, the study has implication for language policy. Studies on the language policy of the country, Ghana (Adika, 2012, Owu-Ewie, 2006, Sarfo, 2012) indicate that all the public universities in Ghana use English as the medium of instruction, which makes English the preferred language over the indigenous languages in the country. In the case of University of Cape Coast, its signages are mainly inscribed in English, promoting the growth and vitality of the English language at the expense of the native languages. It is time the university authority amended its language policy to cater for some of the

indigenous languages in the country in respect of sign writing by juxtaposing the English text with some indigenous languages such as Fante, Ga, Ewe, and Asante Twi in order for these languages to be more creative and dynamic (Juffermans, 2014). Also, some of the foreign languages such as French and Chinese can be considered. This will in effect help the communicative purposes of the diverse public signs to be realized. Ultimately, if the languages on the public signs reflect the languages that the in-group members speak, it is obvious that the messages on the diverse signs can be interpreted accordingly.

5. 4 Recommendations for Further Research

The findings emanating from this study suggest a lot of possibilities for further research. First, I suggest that further research should be conducted to examine how the verbal and non-verbal cues in the signage at UCC interact. This will demonstrate how sign developers incorporate texts with images in a signage to communicate meaning.

I, again, suggest that a comparative study of two universities (e. g. public and private) should be conducted to find out if the LL situations will be the same or not.

5. 5 Conclusion of the Study

In conclusion, this study investigated the linguistic landscape of University of Cape Coast, focusing on the range of the public signs and their communicative functions. In an attempt to achieving the objectives of the study, a brief background on the subject matter was provided, relevant literatures, especially in LLS were reviewed to provide strong basis for the study, and research methods including analytical framework were also discussed.

120

The analysis of the data indicates that the public signs at University of Cape Coast can be categorized as names of Public and Private Structures, Navigational Signs, Notices, Clothing, and Souvenirs drawing insights from the following studies: Scollon and Scollon (2003) and Landry and Bourhis (1997). Again, I found that these public signs perform several communicative functions, namely: identificatory, memorializing, directional, advertising/ marketing/ promotional, invitational, regulatory and pedagogical aside the informational and symbolic functions of LL that Landry and Bourhis (1997) had found in the past. Significantly, the multifunctional nature of some of the public signs was also found. Lastly, recommendations and suggestions for further research are presented.
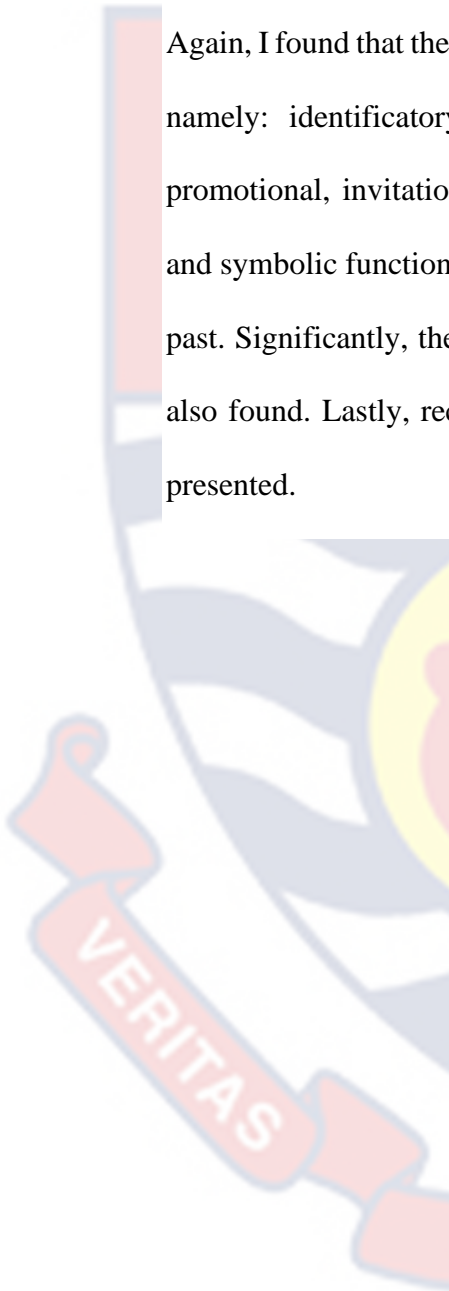
REFERENCES

Abongdia, J. F. A., & Foncha, J. W. (2017). The visibility of language ideologies: The linguistic landscapes of the University of Yaoundé. *Gender and Behaviour*, *15*(2), 8778-8788.

Adeboyeje, R. A. (2000). A practical approach to effective utilisation and maintenance of physical facilities in secondary schools. In J. O. Fadipe & E. E. Oluchukwu (Eds.), *A publication of The National Institute for Educational Planning and Administration* (pp. 88-103). Retrieved from https://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en&as_sdt=0%2C5&q=Adeboy eje%2C+R.+A.+%282000%29.+A+practical+approach+to+effective+ utilisation+and+maintenance+of+physical+facilities+in+secondary+sc hools&btnG=

Adika, G. S. K. (2012). English in Ghana: Growth, tensions, and trends. *International Journal of Language, Translation and Intercultural Communication*, *1*, 151-166.

Adjei, W. A. (2014). *Error analysis of inscriptions on billboards in University of Cape Coast*. Unpublished BA dissertation, Department of English, University of Cape Coast.

Afful, J. B. A., & Mwinlaaru, I. N. I. (2012). When 'Sir' and 'Madam' are not: Address terms and reference terms students use for faculty in a Ghanaian university. *Sociolinguistic Studies*, *6*(3), 491-517.

Agyarkoh, E. (2017). Art, science, and technology of outdoor advertising in Ghana. *Communication Design*, *5*(1), 61-89.

Ahwa, J. Y. (2014). *Analysis of grammatical cohesion in students' narrative and argumentative essays: The case of Sammo Senior High School.*

122

Unpublished master's thesis, Department of English, University of Cape Coast.

Aiestaran, J., Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2010). Multilingual cityscapes: Perceptions and preferences of the inhabitants of the city of Donostia-San Sebastian. *Linguistic Landscape in the City*, 219-234.

Akindele, D. O. (2011). Linguistic landscapes as public communication: A study of public signage in Gaborone Botswana. *International Journal of Linguistics*, *3*(1), 1-11.

Akoto, O. Y. (2021). Geographical markers in church names: A synergy of corpus linguistics and linguistic landscape methodologies. *Journal of the International Council of Onomastic Sciences, 56*, 213-234.

Akoto, O. Y., & Afful, J. B. A. (2021). What languages are in names? Exploring the languages in church names in Ghana. *Athens Journal of Philology*, *8*(1), 37-52.

Akple, M. S., & Biscoff, R. (2012). Assessment of drivers understanding of road signs in Ghana: A case study along Ho-Afloa-Togo route. *International Journal of Business, Management and Social Sciences*, *3*(1), 19-25.

Aladjem, R., & Jou, B. (2016). The linguistic landscape as a learning space for contextual language learning. *Journal of Learning Spaces*, *5*(2), 66-70.

Álvarez-Mosquera, P., & Coetzee, F. (2018). "It makes it legit": Local semiotic perceptions of the linguistic landscape in a market in Soshanguve, South Africa. *Social Semiotics*, *28*(4), 494-511.

Ambarita, E. (2018). The urgency of linguistic communication and culture in social interactions. *INA-Rxiv,*1-11.

123

Amenador, K. B., & Wang, Z. (2022). A systematic review of the Chinese-English translation of public signs. *SAGE Open*, *12*(2), 1-16.

Amoakwah, R., & Mensah, C. E. (2022). The role of multi-modal posters in curbing COVID-19 in Ghana. *Journal of Linguistics and Foreign Languages*, *3*(1), 30-40.

Ampofo, J. A., Amoah, S. T., & Peprah, K. (2020). Examination of the current state of government buildings in senior high schools in Wa Municipal. *International Journal of Management & Entrepreneurship Research*, *2*(3), 161-193.

Anane, J. (2019). Inscriptions on canoes: The case of Winneba seashore. *International Journal of Social, Politics & Humanities*, *3*(1), 73-89.

Anderson, J. A., Wiredu, J. F., Ansah, G. N., Frimpong-Kodie, G., Orfson-Offei, E., & Boamah-Boateng, D. (2020). A linguistic landscape of the central business district of Accra. *Legon Journal of the Humanities*, *31*(1), 1-35.

Anward, J. (1994). Semiotics in educational research. *International Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, *9*, 5411-5417.

Armah, S. (2022). Addressing quality issues in African higher education: A focus on Ghana's emerging private, graduate, business higher education sector. In E. F. Wamboye & B. Fayissa (Eds.), *The palgrave handbook of Africa's economic sectors* (pp. 457-477). New York City: Springer International Publishing.

Arthur, P., & Arthur, E. (2016). Tertiary institutions and capacity building in Ghana: Challenges and the way forward. *Commonwealth & Comparative Politics*, *54*(3), 387-408.

124

Asdar, M. (2017). *An analysis of language function in BPEC (Benteng Panynyua English Club) in Fort Rotterdam*, Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Universitas Islam Negeri Alauddin Makassar.

Avramidis, K., & Drakopoulou, K. (2012). Graffiti crews' potential pedagogical role. *Journal for Critical Education Policy Studies*, *10*(1), 328-340.

Ayantayo, J. S. (2016). Linguistic landscape as a tool for promoting sales: A study of three selected markets in Ibadan, South West Nigeria. *Studies in Literature and Language*, *13*(6), 27-32.

Azidor, K. W. (2020). *Exploring the linguistic landscape of Ho through multimodal analysis of billboards*. Unpublished master's thesis, Department of English, University of Cape Coast.

Backhaus, P. (2005). Signs of multilingualism in Tokyo: A diachronic look at the linguistic landscape. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language*, *175*(176), 103-121

Backhaus, P. (2006). Multilingualism in Tokyo: A look into the linguistic landscape. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, *3*(1), 52-66.

Backhaus, P. (2007). *Linguistic landscapes: A comparative study of urban multilingualism in Tokyo*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Banda, F., & Jimaima, H. (2015). The semiotic ecology of linguistic landscapes in rural Zambia. *Journal of Sociolinguistics*, *19*(5), 643-670.

Bátyi, S., Farran, B., Ismail, A., Popova, M., & Sa'ed, H. (2019). ECOC2023-Are we ready? The linguistic landscape of the high street of Veszprém. *Alkalmazott Nyelvtudomány*, *19*(2), 1-17.

Beebe, B. (2003). The semiotic analysis of trademark law. *UClA l. reV.*, *51*, 621-704.

Ben-Rafael, E (2009). A sociological approach to the study of linguistic landscapes. In E. Shohamy & D. Gorter (Eds.), *Linguistic landscapes: Expanding the scenery* (pp. 40-54). Retrieved from https://www.taylorfrancis.com/chapters/edit/10.4324/9780203930960-9/sociological-approach-study-linguistic-landscapes-linguistic-landscapes-eliezer-ben-rafael

Ben-Rafael, E., Shohamy, E., Hasan Amara, M., & Trumper-Hecht, N. (2006). Linguistic landscape as symbolic construction of the public space: The case of Israel. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, *3*(1), 7-30.

Berger, A. A. (2014). Semiotics and society. *Society*, *51*, 22-26.

Bi, W. (2017, April). Translation methods of Chinese public signs. In Destech Publication Inc. (Ed.), *Proceeding. 3rd International Conference on Social and Technology Education (ICSSTE2017)* (pp. 96-100). Leshan, Sichuan: Diamond Scientific Publishing.

Blommaert, J. (2014). *State ideology and language in Tanzania*. UK: Edinburgh University Press.

Blommaert, J., & Maly, I. (2015). Ethnographic linguistic landscape analysis and social change: A case study. In Tilburg Papers in Culture Studies, *Language and superdiversity* (pp. 207-227). London: Routledge.

Blommaert, J., Collins, J., & Slembrouck, S. (2005). Spaces of multilingualism. *Language & Communication*, *25*(3), 197-216.

Boateng, K. A., Atobra-Acheampong, H., Agyeman, N. P., & Gyamfi, E. A. (2016). Comprehensibility of road traffic signs among urban drivers:

126

Case study; Sunyani municipality, Ghana). *International Journal of Research in Engineering and Technology, 5*(10), 1-7.

Bolton, K. (2012). World Englishes and linguistic landscapes. *World Englishes*, *31*(1), 30-33.

Brown, K. D. (2005). Estonian schoolscapes and the marginalization of regional identity in education. *European Education*, *37*(3), 78-89.

Budarina, O. (2015). Linguistic landscape research: Some methodological remarks. *Scripta Neophilologica Posnaniensia*, *15*, 35-42.

Cavanagh, S. (1997). Content analysis: Concepts, methods and applications. *Nurse Researcher*, *4*(3), 5-16.

Cenoz, J. & Gorter, D. (2008). Linguistic landscape as an additional source of input in second language acquisition. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, *46*(3), 257-276.

Cenoz, J. & Gorter, D. (2009). Language economy and linguistic landscape. In E. Shohamy & D. Gorter (Eds.), *Linguistic landscape: Expanding the scenery* (pp. 55-69). London: Routledge.

Chandler D. (2007). *Semiotics: The basics.* London: Routledge.

Chandler, D. (2002). *Semiotics*: *The basics* (2nd ed). New York: Routledge.

Charmaz, K. (2006). The power of names. *Journal of Contemporary Ethnography*, *35*(4), 396-399.

Cole, F. L. (1988). Content analysis: Process and application. *Clinical Nurse Specialist*, *2*(1), 53-57.

Cole, C. (1991). Oh wise women of the stalls. *Discourse and Society*, *2*, 401-411.

127

Coluzzi, P. (2017). Italian in the linguistic landscape of Kuala Lumpur (Malaysia). *International Journal of Multilingualism*, *14*(2), 109-123.

Coulmas, F. (2005). *Sociolinguistics: The study of speaker's choices*. UK: Cambridge University Press.

Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches* (2nd ed.). California, London: SAGE Publications.

Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D. (2017). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. London: SAGE Publications.

Curtis, B., & Curtis, C. (2011). *Social research: A practical introduction*. London: SAGE Publications.

Danesi, M. (2004). *Messages, signs, and meanings: A basic textbook in semiotics and communication* (3rd ed.). Toronto, Canada: Canadian Scholars' Press Inc.

David, M. K., & Manan, S. A. (2015). Language ideology and the linguistic landscape: A study in Petaling Jaya, Selangor, Malaysia. *Linguistics and the Human Sciences*, *11*(1), 1-16.

David, M. K., & Manan, S. A. (2015). Language ideology and the linguistic landscape: A study in Petaling Jaya, Selangor, Malaysia. *Linguistics & The Human Sciences*, *11*(1), 51-66.

Davids, J. (2017). *A comparative study of inscriptions on wristbands in the University of Cape Coast and Takoradi Technical University*. Unpublished BA dissertation, Department of English, University of Cape Coast.

Davis, A. Y., Pijanowski, B. C., Robinson, K., & Engel, B. (2010). The environmental and economic costs of sprawling parking lots in the United States. *Land Use Policy*, *27*(2), 255-261.

De Saussure, F. (2011). *Course in general linguistics*. New York, United States: Columbia University Press.

Dinçer, S. (2018). Content analysis in scientific research: Meta-analysis, meta-synthesis, and descriptive content analysis. *Bartın University Journal of Faculty of Education*, *7*(1), 176-190.

Diner, S. J. (1975). Department and discipline: The Department of Sociology at the University of Chicago, 1892-1920. *Minerva*, *13*(4), 514-553.

Dornbusch, D. M., & Kawczynska, C. J. (1992). Tourist oriented directional signs: A self-supporting program to promote rural business and economic development. *Journal of Travel Research*, *31*(1), 3-9.

Draper, J. (2010). Introducing multilingual Thai-Isan-English signage in a Thai university. *Multilingual & Multicultural Development*, *31*(2), 135-147.

Dressler, R. (2015). Signgeist: promoting bilingualism through the linguistic landscape of school signage. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, *12*(1), 128-145.

Du Plessis, T. (2010). Bloemfontein/Mangaung,'City on the Move'. Language management and transformation of a non-representative linguistic landscape. In E. Shohamy, E. Ben-Rafael, & M. Barni (Eds.), *Linguistic landscape in the city* (pp.74-95). United States: Multilingual Matters.

Du Plessis, T. (2012). The role of language policy in linguistic landscape changes in a rural area of the Free State Province of South Africa. *Language Matters*, *43*(2), 263-282.

Dzade, S. K. (2020). *A multimodal discourse analysis of advertisements of alcoholic beverages on billboards*. Unpublished BA dissertation, Department of English, University of Cape Coast.

Eco, U. (1976). *A theory of semiotics.* Bloomington: Indiana University Press.

Etikan, I., & Bala, K. (2017). Sampling and sampling methods. *Biometrics & Biostatistics International Journal*, *5*(6), 1-4.

Extra, G., & Barni, M. (2008). Mapping linguistic diversity in multicultural contexts: Cross-national and cross-linguistic perspectives. *Mapping Linguistic Diversity in Multicultural Contexts*, 3-41.

Fakhiroh, Z., & Rohmah, Z. (2018). Linguistic landscape in Sidoarjo city. *Journal of Literature and Language Teaching*, *9*(2), 96-116.

Fisher, M. J., & Marshall, A. P. (2009). Understanding descriptive statistics. *Australian Critical Care*, *22*(2), 93-97.

Ge, L. (2013). A study of pragmatic equivalence in CE translation of public signs: A case study of Xi'an, China. *Canadian Social Science*, *9*(1), 20-27.

Gorter, D. (2006). Linguistic landscape: A new approach to multilingualism. Special Issue, *International Journal of Multilingualism 3*(1), 81-89.

Gorter, D. (2018). Linguistic landscapes and trends in the study of schoolscapes. *Linguistics and Education*, *44*, 80-85.

Gorter, D. (Ed.). (2006). *Linguistic landscape: A new approach to multilingualism*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Gyasi Obeng, S. (2000). Speaking the unspeakable: Discursive strategies to express language attitudes in Legon (Ghana) graffiti. *Research on Language and Social Interaction*, *33*(3), 291-319.

130

Halliday, M. A. K. (1973). *Explorations in the functions of language.* London: Edward Arnold Ltd.

Han, Y., & Wu, X. (2020). Language policy, linguistic landscape and residents' perception in Guangzhou, China: Dissents and conflicts. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, *21*(3), 229-253.

Harry, J. (2018). *A phenomenological discourse analysis of harassed female'skinscapes' in select public spaces in Cape Town.* Unpublished master's dissertation. University of Western Cape.

Haynes, P. (2012). *Welsh language policy: A study of the linguistic landscape at Cardiff University.* Unpublished master's dissertation. University of Birmingham.

Holsti, O. R. (1968). Content analysis. *The handbook of social psychology*, *2*, 596-692.

Hsieh, H. F. & Shannon, S. E. (2005). The approaches to qualitative content analysis. *Qualitative Health Research*, *15*(9), 1277-1288.

Huebner, T., & Phoocharoensil, S. (2017). Monument as semiotic landscape: The contested historiography of a national tragedy. *Linguistic Landscape*, *3*(2), 101-121.

Inkoom, E. A. (2015). *A multimodal analysis of church posters in the Cape Coast metropolis.* Unpublished BA dissertation, Department of English, University of Cape Coast.

Inya, B. T. (2019). Linguistic landscape of religious signboards in Ado Ekiti, Nigeria: Culture, identity and globalisation. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *9*(9), 1146-1159.

Jacobson, R. (1960). Linguistics and poetics. In T. A. Sebeok (Ed.), *Style in language* (pp. 350-377). Massachusetts, Cambridge: MIT Press.

Jane-Francis, A., & Foncha, J. W. (2014). Language ideologies in the linguistic landscape of one university in South Africa. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, *5*(7), 623-623.

Jiao, Y. (2021). Linguistic landscape in campus of local universities: A case study of Ankang University. *International Journal of Teaching Innovation in Higher Education*, *1*(1), 34-36.

Jing-Jing, W. A. N. G. (2015). Linguistic landscape on campus in Japan-A case study of signs in Kyushu University. *Intercultural Communication Studies*, *24*(1), 123-144.

Johnson, D. (2017). Linguistic landscaping and the assertion of twenty-first century Māori identity. *Linguistic Landscape*, *3*(1), 1-24.

Johnson, I. L. (2012). *Towards urban multilingualism: investigating the linguistic landscape of the public rail transport system in the Western Cape*. Unpublished master's dissertation, University of the Western Cape.

Johnson, I. L. (2018). *Multilingualism and linguistic landscapes across space and time in the public railway system in South Africa*: *A multisemiotic analysis*. Unpublished doctoral thesis, University of the Western Cape.

Jolayemi, D., & Mahmud, O. (2017). Road signs as linguistic landscape in Nigeria: A semiotic communication. *International Journal of English Language and Linguistics Research*, *5*(5), 1-14.

Juffermans, K. (2012). Multimodality and audiences: Local languaging in the Gambian linguistic landscape. *Sociolinguistic Studies=Estudios de Sociolingüística*, *6*(2), 259-284.

Juffermans, K. (2014). Englishing, imaging and local languaging in the Gambian linguistic landscape. *African Literacies: Ideologies, Scripts, Education*, 206-236.

Karolak, M. (2020). Linguistic landscape in a city of migrants: A study of Souk Naif area in Dubai. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 1-25.

Kezia, N. (2013). *Forms and meaning of inscriptions on shops at the Kotokuraba market in the Cape Coast metropolis*. Unpublished BA dissertation, Department of English, University of Cape Coast.

Korang, E. (2011). *The language of inscriptions in t-shirts worn by students of the University of Cape Coast*. Unpublished BA dissertation, Department of English, University of Cape Coast.

Kotze, C. R., & Du Plessis, T. (2010). Language visibility in the Xhariep–a comparison of the linguistic landscape of three neighbouring towns. *Language Matters: Studies in the Languages of Africa*, *41*(1), 72-96.

Kretzer, M. M., & Kaschula, R. H. (2021). Language policy and linguistic landscapes at schools in South Africa. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, *18*(1), 105-127.

Kucuk, S. U. (2015). A semiotic analysis of consumer-generated antibranding. *Marketing Theory*, *15*(2), 243-264.

Lai, M. L. (2013). The linguistic landscape of Hong Kong after the change of sovereignty. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, *10*(3), 251-272.

Laihonen, P., & Tódor, E. M. (2017). The changing schoolscape in a Szekler village in Romania: Signs of diversity in rehungarization. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, *20*(3), 362-379.

Landry, R., & Bourhis, R. (1997). Linguistic landscape and ethnolinguistic vitality: An empirical study. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology, 16*(1), 23-49.

Lanza, E., & Woldemariam, H. (2014). Indexing modernity: English and branding in the linguistic landscape of Addis Ababa. *International Journal of Bilingualism*, *18*(5), 491-506.

Leeman, J., & Modan, G. (2009). Commodified language in Chinatown: A contextualized approach to linguistic landscape 1. *Journal of Sociolinguistics*, *13*(3), 332-362.

Leeman, J., & Modan, G. (2010). Selling the city: Language, ethnicity and commodified space. *Linguistic Landscape in the City*, 182-198.

Legge, N. (2016). *A survey of the linguistic landscape of Stockholm University*. Unpublished Master's thesis, Stockholm University.

Lestari, D. D. (2019). *A study of linguistic landscape in Medan*. Unpublished master's thesis, Universitas Muhammadiyah Sumatera Utara.

Loth, C. R. (2016). *The linguistic landscape as construct of the public space: a case study of post-apartheid rural South Africa*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of the Free State.

Lou, J. J. (2010). Chinese on the side: The marginalization of Chinese in the linguistic and social landscapes of Chinatown in Washington, DC. In E. Shahomy, E. Ben-Rafael & B. Monica (Eds), *Linguistic landscape in the city* (pp. 96-114). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

134

Mahemuti, M. (2018). *Linguistic landscape on campus: Asian college students' perceptions of multilingual learning environments*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, State University of New York.

Malinowski, D. (2016). Localizing the transdisciplinary in practice: A teaching account of a prototype undergraduate seminar on linguistic landscape. *L2 Journal*, *8*(4), 100-117.

Malinowski, D. (2016). Localizing the transdisciplinary in practice: A teaching account of a prototype undergraduate seminar on linguistic landscape. *L2 Journal*, *8*(4), 100-117.

Marten, H. F. (2010). Linguistic landscape under strict state language policy: Reversing the Soviet legacy in a regional centre in Latvia. *Linguistic Landscape in the City*, 115-132.

Meis, J., & Kashima, Y. (2017). Signage as a tool for behavioral change: Direct and indirect routes to understanding the meaning of a sign. *PloS One*, *12*(8), 1-16.

Mensah, L. E., & Afful, J. B. A. (2022). Identity Construction: An Onomastic Exploration of Church Names in Ghana. *The International Journal of Humanities & Social Studies*, *10*(4), 58-68.

Mokwena, P. L. (2018). *A social semiotic analysis of the linguistic landscape of two rural district municipalities in the Northern Cape, South Africa*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of the Western Cape.

Montgomery, M. (1995). *An introduction to language and society* (2nd.). London: Routledge.

Motta-Roth, D., & Heberle, V. M. (2015). A short cartography of genre studies in Brazil. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *19*, 22-31.

135

Mwinlaaru, I. N. I. (2012). *A stylistic study of characterisation and point of view in Chinua Achebe's Anthills of The Savannah: A Functional-Semantic Perspective.* Unpublished master's dissertation, Department of English, University of Cape Coast.

Mwinlaaru, I. N. I. (2012). Transitivity and narrative viewpoint in Ngugi wa Thiong'o's Weep Not, Child. In D. F. Edu-Buandoh & A. B. Appartaim (Eds.), *Between language and literature*: *A festschrift for Professor Kofi Edu Yankson* (pp. 354-370). Cape Coast: Cape Coast University Press.

Nartey, P. (2003). *The stories behind the inscriptions on canoes- A case study of the James Town fishing community*. Unpublished BA dissertation, Department of English, University of Cape Coast.

Ndimulunde, A. N. (2019). *Linguistic landscape as symbolic construction of the public space: A case study of Mandume Ndemufayo Street, Ongwediva commercial and non-commercial signs*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Namibia University of Science and Technology.

Nosiani, N., Asiyah, S., & Mustikawati, D. A. (2019). Linguistic landscape on campus in Ponorogo: A case study of signs in Ponorogo universities. *Edupedia*, *3*(2), 130-138.

Nosonovsky, M. (2006). *Hebrew epitaphs and inscriptions from Ukraine and former Soviet Union.* Washington D.C.: Library Congress Cataloguing. Retrieved from https://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en&as_sdt=0%2C5&q=Nosonovsky%2C+M.+%282006%29.+Hebrew+Epitaphs+and+Inscriptions+from+Ukraine+and+Former+Soviet+Union.+&btnG=

Nunyenge, R., & Esena, R. (2013). The meaning people make of HIV posters: A case study on health improvement at Jirapa district in the Upper West

region of Ghana. *Journal of Biology, Agriculture and Healthcare*, *3*(7), 1-15.

Nurudeen, M. A., Ogungbe, E. O., & Zakariyah, M. (2021). A socio semiotic approach to multimodal discourse of selected Nollywood film advertisement posters. *Studies in Pragmatics and Discourse Analysis*, *2*(2), 31-45.

Nwoye, O. G. (1993). Social issues on walls: Graffiti in university lavatories. *Discourse & Society*, *4*(4), 419-442.

Nyame, J., & Tomekyin, C. (2018). Language competition in the linguistic landscape in Ajumako and Winneba. *International Journal of Innovative Research and Advanced Studies*, *5*(7), 235-244.

Nyarko, E. K. (2015*). Inscriptions on vehicles: A case study of Cape Coast municipality*. Unpublished BA dissertation, Department of English, University of Cape Coast.

Owu-Ewie, C. (2006, April). The language policy of education in Ghana: A critical look at the English-only language policy of education. In *Selected proceedings of the 35th annual conference on African linguistics* (pp. 76-85). Somerville, MA: Cascadilla Proceedings Project.

Owusu-Afriyie, R. (2020). Examining the linguistic landscapes of the New Juaben Municipality, Ghana. *Research Journal in African Languages*, *1*(1), 97-115.

Patton, M. Q. (2003). Qualitative evaluation checklist. *Evaluation Checklists Project*, *21*, 1-13.

Pavlenko, A. (2009). Language conflict in post-Soviet linguistic landscapes. *Journal of Slavic Linguistics*, *17*(1), 247-274.

137

Pavlenko, A. (2010). Linguistic landscape of Kyiv, Ukraine: A diachronic study. *Linguistic Landscape in the City*, 133-150.

Peck, A., & C. Stroud. (2015). Skinscapes, linguistic landscape. *An International Journal, 1*(12), 133-151.

Peirce, C. S. (1931-1958). *Collected Papers*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Pérez-Llantada, C. (2015). Genres in the forefront, languages in the background: The scope of genre analysis in language-related scenarios. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *19*, 10-21.

Prah, C. (1998). *The themes in inscriptions at the Takoradi market*. Unpublished BA dissertation, Department of English, University of Cape Coast.

Quaye, Q. (2011). *Modality in persuasive text: A study of notices on students' notice boards at the University of Cape Coast*. Unpublished BA dissertation, Department of English, University of Cape Coast.

Quayson, A. (2014). *Oxford Street, Accra: city life and the itineraries of transnationalism*. United States: Duke University Press.

Sackey, J. A. (1997). The English language in Ghana historical perspective. In M. E. K. Dakubu (Ed.), *English in Ghana* (pp. 33-45). Accra: Black Mask Publishers.

Sarfo, E. (2012). Ghanaian university students' attitudes towards English. *International Review of Social Sciences and Humanities, 4*(1), 86-99.

Saussure, F. de (1857-1913). *Course in General Linguistics*. London: Duckworth.

Schmidt, W. (2005). Mass media and visual communication: Popular posters in West Africa. *Third Text*, *19*(3), 307-316.

Scollon, R. (2001). Action and text: Towards an integrated understanding of the place of text in social (inter) action, mediated discourse analysis and the problem of social action. *Methods of Critical Discourse Analysis*, *113*, 139-183.

Scollon, R., & Scollon, S. W. (2003). *Discourses in place: Language in the material world*. London: Routledge.

Sebeok, T. A. (2001). *Signs: An introduction to semiotics* (2nd ed.). Toronto, Canada: University of Toronto Press.

Seidlhofer, B. (2005). English as a lingua franca. *ELT journal*, *59*(4), 339-341.

Shah, S. (2016). *A policy guide*: *Making parking lots and commercial driveways safer for pedestrians*. Unpublished master's dissertation, Dalhousie University.

Shang, G., & Guo, L. (2017). Linguistic landscape in Singapore: What shop names reveal about Singapore's multilingualism. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, *14*(2), 183-201.

Shohamy, E. (2006). *Language policy: Hidden agendas and new approaches*. London: Routledge.

Shohamy, E. (2011). Assessing multilingual competencies: Adopting construct valid assessment policies. *The Modern Language Journal*, *95*(3), 418-429.

Shohamy, E. G., Rafael, E. B., & Barni, M. (Eds.). (2010). *Linguistic landscape in the city*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Shohamy, E., & Gorter, D. (2009). *Linguistic landscape: Expanding the scenery*. New York, London: Routledge.

Shohamy, E., & Waksman, S. (2008). Linguistic landscape as an ecological arena: Modalities, meanings, negotiations, education. In E. Shohamy & D. Gorter (Eds.), *Linguistic Landscape* (pp. 353-371). New York, London: Routledge.

Silue, S. J. (2015). Discourse on linguistic diversity in Africa. *International Journal*, *2*(3), 792-807.

Simanjuntak, H. I., & Manik, S. (2013). Function of Language as Found in Economical News. *The Episteme Journal of Linguistics and Literature*, *1*(2), 1-16.

Simungala, G. (2020). *The linguistic landscape of the University of Zambia: A social semiotic perspective*. Unpublished masters' dissertation, University of Zambia.

Siricharoen, A. (2016). Multilingualism in the linguistic landscape of the Faculty of Arts, Chulalongkorn University, Thailand. *Manusya: Journal of Humanities*, *19*(3), 12-25.

Spolsky, B. and Cooper, R. L. (1991), *The Languages of Jerusalem*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Stemler, S. E. (2015). Content analysis. *Emerging Trends in the Social and Behavioral Sciences: An Interdisciplinary, Searchable, and Linkable Resource*, 1-14.

Susini, M., Ana, I. W., & Sujaya, N. (2021). Function of verbal signs in public spaces. In M. Suwitra, N. Nurjaya, P. D. Astuti, A. D. Y. Pratama, & R. Rahim, (Eds.). *WARDS 2020: Proceedings of the 3rd Warmadewa Research and Development Seminar, WARDS 2020, 21 December 2020, Denpasar-Bali, Indonesia* (pp. 61-68). Retrieved from

https://books.google.com.gh/books?hl=en&lr=&id=MjgvEAAAQBAJ
&oi=fnd&pg=PA61&dq=Function+of+Verbal+Signs+in+Public+Spac
es&ots=8RDKnpu53e&sig=zrRTOAcVEAKWgRscPZXVb7934Us&r
edir_esc=y#v=onepage&q=Function%20of%20Verbal%20Signs%20in
%20Public%20Spaces&f=false

Szabó, T.P. (2015). The management of diversity in schoolscapes: An analysis of Hungarian practices, Apples. *Journal of Applied Language Studies*, *9*(1), 23-51.

Tajudeen, O. B., Awoniyi, F. E., Fatimo, O. A., & Odusanya, O. (2019). The perlocutionary effects of cautionary notices on motoristsusing Nigeria highways. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *9*(10), 1253-1269.

Tan, S. X. W., & Tan, Y. Y. (2015). Examining the functions and identities associated with English and Korean in South Korea: A linguistic landscape study. *Asian Englishes*, *17*(1), 59-79.

Thanasegaran, G (2009). Reliability and validity issues in research. *Integration and Dissemination Research Bulletin*, 35-40.

Train, R. W. (2016). Connecting visual presents to archival pasts in multilingual California: Towards historical depth in linguistic landscape. *Linguistic Landscape*, *2*(3), 223-246.

University of Cape Coast (2022). *60th Anniversary celebration, 60 years of quality higher education: Expanding the frontiers. University of Cape Coast, 2022*. Ghana: University of Cape Coast Printing Press.

Vovk, O., & Kudelko, S. (2022). Local history practice in the system of Bachelors-Historians Training: Experience and prospects. *Journal of Curriculum and Teaching*, *11*(1), 129-141.

141

Waksman, S., & Shohamy, E. (2010). Decorating the city of Tel Aviv-Jaffa for its centennial: Complementary narratives via linguistic landscape. *Linguistic Landscape in the City*, 57-73.

West Gate - UCC. Retrieved from https://ucc.edu.gh

Williams, M. (2016). *Sexuality and the identity of the young: A multimodal analysis of pool party advertisement.* Unpublished BA dissertation, Department of English, University of Cape Coast.

Woldemariam, H., & Lanza, E. (2014). Language contact, agency and power in the linguistic landscape of two regional capitals of Ethiopia. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language*, 79-103.

Woo, W. S., & Nora Riget, P. (2022). Linguistic landscape in Kuala Lumpur international airport, Malaysia. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, *43*(5), 404-423.

World University Rankings. Retrieved from https://www.google.com/search?q=world+university+rankings+university+cape+coast&rlz=1C1CHBD_enGH922GH922&oq=world+university+rankings+university+cape+coast&aqs=chrome..69i57j69i60.1538j0j15&sourceid=chrome&ie=UTF-8

Yang, Y. (2009). Classification of public signs and their characteristics. *Asian Social Science*, *5*(12), 121-124.

Yang, Y., Chen, Y., Wu, C., Easa, S. M., Lin, W., & Zheng, X. (2020). Effect of highway directional signs on driver mental workload and behavior using eye movement and brain wave. *Accident Analysis & Prevention*, *146*, 1-11.

Yannuar, N., & Febrianti, Y. (2021). Walikan in the linguistic landscape of Malang: The rise of a local youth language. In Advances in Social Science, Education and Humanities Research, *International Congress of Indonesian Linguistics Society (KIMLI 2021)* (pp. 68-73). Paris: Atlantis Press.

Yavari, S. (2012). *Linguistic landscape and language policy: A comparative study of Linköping University and ETH Zürich*. Unpublished Master's thesis, Linköping University.
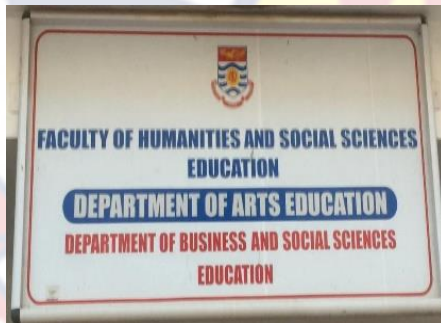
Yoel, J. (2020). The visibility of the English language in the linguistic landscape of two teacher training colleges in Israel. *Journal of English as an International Language*, *15*(1), 44-63. Retrieved from https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ1259938
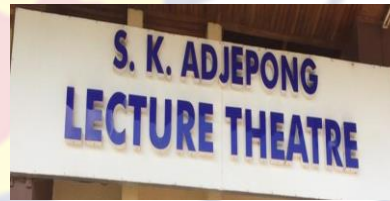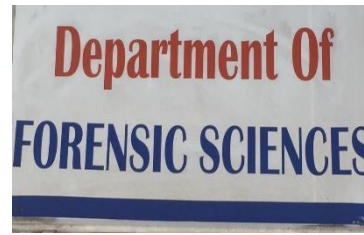
Zheng, S. (2021). A study of the Chinese-English translation of public signs in scenic spots in Guangzhou from the perspective of Skopos Theory. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *11*(5), 489-497.
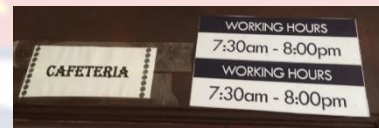
143

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A-PUBLIC SIGNAGES

144

DEPARTMENT OF FISHERIES AND AQUATIC SCIENCES

Department Of FORENSIC SCIENCES

DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND RECREATION (HPER)

054 302 1384
020 661 0931
hper@ucc
https://hp

DEPARTMENT OF MOLECULAR BIOLOGY AND BIOTECHNOLOGY

SCHOOL OF PHYSICAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF MATHEMATICS

UCC SRC 2010/2011
G - BLOCK

NAANA J. OPOKU-AGYEMANG AUDITORIUM

C. A. ACKAH LECTURE THEATRE COMPLEX

DOMWINI DABIRE KUUPOLE CONFERENCE ROOM

S. K. ADJEPONG LECTURE THEATRE

Elizabeth Addabor Conference Hall

ALBERT KOOMSON BUILDING COMPLEX

145

148

ONE WAY
IN

NO
HOOTING

NO
HAWKING
in this AREA
By: Management

SPOT FINE
GH¢ 100.00

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
COLLEGE OF HUMANITIES AND LEGAL STUDIES
FACULTY OF ARTS
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

MPHIL THESIS DEFENSE

PRESENTER: MS. SCORTIA QUANSAH

TOPIC: EXPANDING THE BOUNDS OF LITERATURE:
ELECTRONIC LITERATURE FOR CHILDREN IN
AFRICA

CHAIRPERSON:
PROF. J. B. A. AFFUL

VENUE:
FACULTY OF ARTS CONFERENCE ROOM

DATE: TIME:
THURSDAY, OCTOBER 13, 2022   9:00 AM

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
DEPARTMENT OF GHANAIAN
LANGUAGES AND LINGUISTICS

DEPARTMENTAL SEMINAR

Topic:
An Akan Philosophy of Chieftaincy

Presenter:
Dr. K. B. Maison
(Dept. of History, UCC)

Chair:
Mr. Peter A. Hope

Date: Monday, 10th Oct, 2022
Time: 1:30 - 2:30 pm
Venue: Faculty of Arts Conference Room

ALL ARE CORDIALLY INVITED!
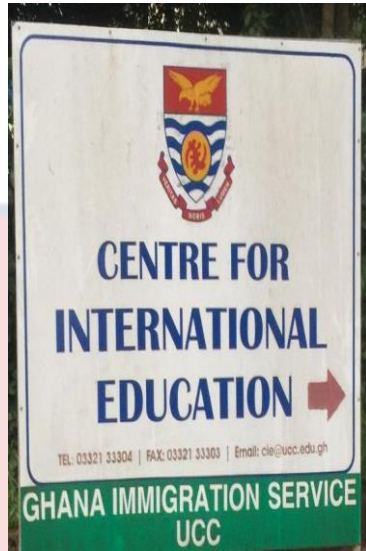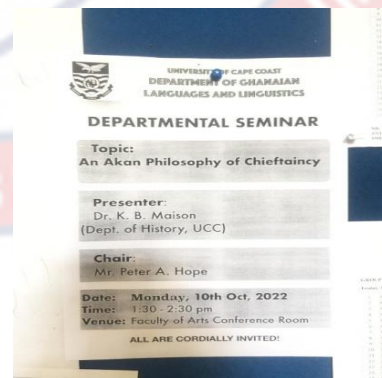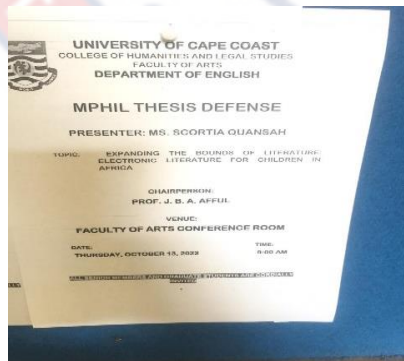
150

151

152

APPENDIX B

PERMISSION LETTERS

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
COLLEGE OF HUMANITIES AND LEGAL STUDIES
FACULTY OF ARTS
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH
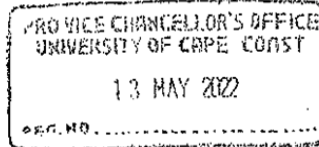
TELEPHONE: 0332092195

Email: english@ucc.edu.gh

University of Cape Coast
Cape Coast, Ghana

OUR REF: ED/S/7/174

11th May, 2022

The Pro Vice- Chancellor
Office of the Pro Vice-Chancellor
UCC

PRO VICE CHANCELLOR'S OFFICE
UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
13 MAY 2022
REC. NO. ....

Dear Madam,

INTRODUCTORY LETTER- KINGSLEY BEKOE (AR/ENP/20/0018)

We write to introduce Kingsley Bekoe (AR/ENP/20/0018), an MPhil student of our Department who is currently writing his thesis and requires data from your office, the Dean of Students office and the Student Records Section.

Mr. Bekoe is undertaking a study titled *Multimodal analysis of linguistic landscape of University of Cape Coast*. We kindly request that you provide him any form of support that will enable him to collect his data.

Thank you for your anticipated support.

Yours faithfully,

Prof. J. B. A. Afful (PhD)
Head of Department

Cc   The Dean of Students, UCC
      The Head, Student Records Section, UCC
      Kingsley Bekoe, Department of English, UCC

0242113134

153

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
COLLEGE OF HUMANITIES AND LEGAL STUDIES
FACULTY OF ARTS
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

TELEPHONE: 050-3180544/03320-92195

Email: english@ucc.edu.gh
englishdepartment53@gmail.com

YOUR REF: ED/M/1/V.2/
YOUR REF:

University of Cape Coast
Cape Coast. Ghana

Received
10/1/2023

1**0**th January, 2023

The Head
University Kindergarten School
University of Cape Coast
Cape Coast

Dear Madam,

INTRODUCTION- KINGSLEY BEKOE: AR/ENP/20/0018

We write to introduce Kingsley Bekoe, a student of the Department of English who is pursuing MPhil in English Language. He is currently undertaking his research on the topic: *Multimodal analysis of linguistic landscape of University of cape Coast.*

Kindly accord him any assistance he may need.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

Elisheba Adwowa Korankye
Principal Administrative Assitant

0242113134

Noted with permission granted

18/01/2023

Headteacher
UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
KINDERGARTEN
CAPE COAST

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
COLLEGE OF HUMANITIES AND LEGAL STUDIES
FACULTY OF ARTS
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

TELEPHONE: 0332092195

Email: english@ucc.edu.gh

University of Cape Coast
Cape Coast, Ghana

OUR REF: ED/S/7/174

11th May, 2022

The Pro Vice- Chancellor
Office of the Pro Vice-Chancellor
UCC

Dear Madam,

INTRODUCTORY LETTER- KINGSLEY BEKOE (AR/ENP/20/0018)

We write to introduce Kingsley Bekoe (AR/ENP/20/0018), an MPhil student of our Department who is currently writing his thesis and requires data from your office, the Dean of Students office and the Student Records Section.

Mr. Bekoe is undertaking a study titled *Multimodal analysis of linguistic landscape of University of Cape Coast.* We kindly request that you provide him any form of support that will enable him to collect his data.

Thank you for your anticipated support.

Yours faithfully,

Prof. J. B. A. Afful (PhD)
Head of Department

Cc   The Dean of Students, UCC
      The Head, Student Records Section, UCC
      Kingsley Bekoe, Department of English, UCC

155

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
COLLEGE OF HUMANITIES AND LEGAL STUDIES
FACULTY OF ARTS
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

TELEPHONE: 050-3180544/03320-92195

Email: english@ucc.edu.gh
englishdepartment53@gmail.com

University of Cape Coast
Cape Coast. Ghana

OUR REF: *ED/M/1/V.2/*
YOUR REF:

8th August, 2022

The Head
University Junior High School
University of Cape Coast
Cape Coast

Dear Sir/Madam,

INTRODUCTION- KINGSLEY BEKOE: AR/ENP/20/0018

We write to introduce Kingsley Bekoe, a student of the Department of English who is pursuing MPhil in English Language. He is currently undertaking his research on the topic: *Multimodal analysis of linguistic landscape of University of cape Coast.*

Kindly accord him any assistance he may need.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

Elisheba Adwowa Korankye
Principal Administrative Assistant

156

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
COLLEGE OF HUMANITIES AND LEGAL STUDIES
FACULTY OF ARTS
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

TELEPHONE: 050-3180544/03320-92195

Email: **english@ucc.edu.gh**
       englishdepartment53@gmail.com

OUR REF: ED/M/1/V.2/
YOUR REF:

University of Cape Coast
Cape Coast. Ghana

8ᵗʰ August, 2022

The Regional Commander
Ghana Police Service
Cape Coast

Dear Sir/Madam,

INTRODUCTION- KINGSLEY BEKOE: AR/ENP/20/0018

We write to introduce Kingsley Bekoe, a student of the Department of English who is pursuing MPhil in English Language. He is currently undertaking his research on the topic: *Multimodal analysis of linguistic landscape of University of cape Coast.*

Kindly accord him any assistance he may need.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

Elisheba Adwowa Korankye
Principal Administrative Assistant

157

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
COLLEGE OF HUMANITIES AND LEGAL STUDIES
FACULTY OF ARTS
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

TELEPHONE: 050-3180544/03320-92195

Email: english@ucc.edu.gh
englishdepartment53@gmail.com

University of Cape Coast
Cape Coast. Ghana

OÙR REF: ED/M/1/V.2/
YOUR REF:

8th August, 2022

The Regional Commander
Ghana National Fire Service
Cape Coast

Dear Sir/Madam,

INTRODUCTION- KINGSLEY BEKOE: AR/ENP/20/0018

We write to introduce Kingsley Bekoe, a student of the Department of English who is pursuing MPhil in English Language. He is currently undertaking his research on the topic: *Multimodal analysis of linguistic landscape of University of cape Coast.*

Kindly accord him any assistance he may need.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

Elisheba Adwowa Korankye
Principal Administrative Assistant

158

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
COLLEGE OF HUMANITIES AND LEGAL STUDIES
FACULTY OF ARTS
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

TELEPHONE: 050-3180544/03320-92195

Email: english@ucc.edu.gh
         englishdepartment53@gmail.com

OUR REF: ED/M/1/V.2/
YOUR REF:

University of Cape Coast
Cape Coast. Ghana

8th August, 2022

The Head
Estate Section (Sign Writing Unit)
University of Cape Coast
Cape Coast

Dear Sir/Madam,

INTRODUCTION- KINGSLEY BEKOE: AR/ENP/20/0018

We write to introduce Kingsley Bekoe, a student of the Department of English who is pursuing MPhil in English Language. He is currently undertaking his research on the topic: *Multimodal analysis of linguistic landscape of University of cape Coast.*

Kindly accord him any assistance he may need.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

Elisheba Adwowa Korankye
Principal Administrative Assistant

159

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
COLLEGE OF HUMANITIES AND LEGAL STUDIES
FACULTY OF ARTS
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

TELEPHONE: 050-3180544/03320-92195

Email: **english@ucc.edu.gh**
              englishdepartment53@gmail.com

OUR REF: ED/M/1/V.2/
YOUR REF:

University of Cape Coast
Cape Coast. Ghana

8ᵗʰ August, 2022

The Head
University Practice Senior High School
University of Cape Coast
Cape Coast

Dear Sir,

INTRODUCTION- KINGSLEY BEKOE: AR/ENP/20/0018

We write to introduce Kingsley Bekoe, a student of the Department of English who is pursuing MPhil in English Language. He is currently undertaking his research on the topic: *Multimodal analysis of linguistic landscape of University of cape Coast.*

Kindly accord him any assistance he may need.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

Elisheba Adwowa Korankye
Principal Administrative Assistant

160