



Campuscapes: Examining the Linguistic Landscapes of Bulacan Agricultural State College

Eiffel N. Marcelo

Bulacan Agricultural State College, Compound, San Ildefonso, Bulacan, Philippines

Corresponding author. E-mail address: eiffelnunez214@gmail.com

Received: 13 January 2024; Revised: 18 April 2024; Accepted: 23 April 2024; Available Online: 21 June 2024

Abstract

This paper discusses the linguistic landscapes of Bulacan Agricultural State College. Linguistic landscape surveys public signage and how they are perceived and utilized among encoders and their intended audience. The data were gathered through the collection of photographs taken within the vicinities of the College campuses, and through interviews among encoders and decoders of messages presented by public signage. The study assessed language use through place semiotics including code preference, inscription, and emplacement that revealed how public signs are written in English and Tagalog. The dominance of English is reflected on how both encoders and decoders utilized the language as opposed to Tagalog and other Filipino language. Perceptions on English as the language of the educated class emerged as a reason why it holds superior language status. The materials used which are dominantly metal and papers exhibit how the encoders classified their public sign. Public signs made of metals contain policies and information that are expected to last for a period of time while public signs made of paper reflect the changing regulations and the need for fast information dissemination. Placement of the public signs have various meanings apart from the meaning the written texts intend to communicate. Most public signage were categorized as top-down and/or official as they are created and posted by administrators of the institution, thus, reflecting their authority within campuses. Referential function is the most common language function used by the encoders so as to label various areas and objects located within the college vicinities. These findings implied how both encoders and decoders have varying perspectives on the importance of language preference, inscription, and emplacement, thus, contributing to the spread, acceptance, and value of different languages existing within the college's space.

Keywords: Linguistic Landscapes, Signage, Place Semiotics, Campuscapes

Introduction

Linguistic Landscape (LL) is the study of language use in its written form in the public sphere. The following definition of LL is given by Landry and Bourhis (1997).

“... the language of public road signs, advertising billboards, street name, place names, commercial shop signs, and public signs on government buildings combine to form the linguistic landscape of a given territory, region, or urban agglomeration.”

Public signs are used mainly for dissemination of information (Guo & Zhao, 2021). Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983) proposed specific language functions to enable a decoder of a message to interpret an encoder's intended meaning accordingly. A language is used because of its function, that is, to communicate. Therefore, it is classified depending on what people wanted to *do* with language. These functions are *personal*, *interpersonal*, *directive*, *referential*, and *imaginative*. The following is the categorical systems existing for language functions (Finocchiaro & Brumfit, 1983 as cited in Jacobs & Kline Liu, 1996).

Personal function refers to clarifying or arranging one's idea. It includes expressing one's thoughts or feelings as in love, pleasure, surprise, likes, dislikes, distress, anger, fear, sorrow; communicating moral, intellectual, and social concerns; and expressing everyday feelings of hunger, fatigue, cold, or warmth. Interpersonal function refers to establishing and maintaining desirable social and working relationships. It includes greetings and leavetakings,

introducing people to others, extending invitations/accepting invitations, refusing invitations politely or making alternative arrangements, apologizing, indicating agreement/disagreement, interrupting another speaker politely, complimenting someone, and expressing/acknowledging gratitude. Directive function refers to attempting to influence the actions of others, and accepting or refusing direction. It includes making requests, making suggestions, refusing to accept a suggestion or a request but offering an alternative, persuading someone to change their point of view, asking for help or responding to a plea for help, and giving/responding to instructions. Referential function refers to talking or reporting about things, actions, events, or people in the environment in the past or in the future, and talking about language. It includes asking for a description of someone or something, defining something or a language item, asking for a definition, requesting facts about events or actions, reporting facts, and evaluating the results of an action or an event. Lastly, imaginative function refers to expanding ideas offered by others or by a listening or reading passage. It includes creating rhymes, poetry, stories, or plays, and solving problems or mysteries.

LL is rooted from semiotics, the “study of social production of meaning from sign systems; and the analysis of anything that can stand for something else” (Griffin, 2011). Pierce (1992 as cited in Griffin, 2011) crafted a triadic model of the sign that includes three points: the *object* or the *referent*, the *representamen* or the form that the sign takes, and the *interpretant* or the sense of the sign in the mind of the interpreter. He proposed that there could be no direct relationship between *representamen* and *object*. This is anchored to the notion of one characteristics of language which is arbitrariness.

When constructing a sign, a person is wrong to assume that everyone who sees the sign will have the same interpretation. Also, the audience of the sign cannot be sure that their interpretation is exactly what the producer or creator means as there are lots of meanings attached or loaded to a particular sign or symbol (Griffin, 2011).

Studies on LL in the Philippines are more focused on rural areas which are sites of linguistic diversity. One example is the study of LL in Binondo, Manila, that cultivated the concept of semiotics into a deeper level through geosemiotics, a study where place semiotics is rooted from that is defined as ‘the study of the social meaning of the material’ (Scollon & Scollon, 2003).

Place semiotics scrutinizes LL through its three key elements: code preference, inscription, and emplacement. Code preference delves into how signs reflect the politics of language that can be seen on how statements are translated and how these translations are arranged and represented. The preferred code is placed on top, on the left, or in the center while the marginalized code is placed on the bottom, on the right, or on the margin. Inscription refers to the materials that may include different components such as font, material, size, color, and texts. Emplacement seeks to answer whether a sign is socio-culturally authorized. Scollon and Scollon (2009 as cited in Manalatas, 2023) present three types of emplacement: decontextualized, transgressive, and situated. Decontextualized emplacement refers to forms of signs, pictures, and texts appearing in multiple contexts but always in the same form. Transgressive emplacement refers to forms of signs in the wrong place. Situated emplacement refers to signs that aim to implement regulations.

Also, public signs are classified through top-down and bottom-up distinctions. Top-down LL items are those created and produced by national and government bureaucracies, public institutions, signs on public sites, public announcements, and street names. Top-down public signs are also distinguished as the official signs and they regulate the behavior and culture of a space through issuing imperatives or detailing ideas that are relevant to the public. Furthermore, these public signs also display commitment to the dominant culture as they relay information



from the higher authorities to the stakeholders which include the students, the parents, the employees, the external clients, and the visitors of the college. Contrarily, bottom-up public signs are those issued by individual social actors, and companies that may include names of shops, and personal announcements. These public signs are non-official and therefore, are designed more freely as encoders employed their individual strategies in creation and posting of signage. Also, unlike top-down public signs, bottom-up public signs do not need and are not required to follow a particular standard as imposed by the authorities to where they are installed or placed (Nasir et al., 2019; Ben-Rafael et al., 2006).

Relevant studies on LL such as that which focus on campuses or academic institutions exhibit how public signs installed in school vicinities provide information on the environment or the culture of an institution as it reinforces rules of etiquettes the public are expected to follow. These public signs may include directions on how to navigate the area, procedures regarding a particular transaction, policies that need to be followed by the students or visitors, or commercial information from outside organization and businesses (Nasir et al., 2019). Also, as the education institutions become more globalized, LL studies in schools are found to promote international development through using a combination of local language for inclusivity of local students and global language for migratory or visiting students from other countries (Cao et al., 2022).

As an effect of globalization, the English language is positioned as the superior language among various countries including the Philippines. Further, Manalatas (2022) perceived English as the language of the educated class as a high-level of proficiency is largely pre-determined at birth. High- and middle-class families are able to send their children to academic institutions that instill the social value and privilege associated with the use of English language. Also, there is a community of people promoting the use of English language as the sole medium of instruction among academic institutions (Tupas, 2004 as cited in Manalatas, 2022). It has placed local language and dialect at a disadvantage.

The dynamics between English and local language is also reflected on processes of code-mixing and code-switching. Code-mixing is the use of two language in the course of a single utterance while code-switching is defined as “the mixing of words, phrases and sentences from two distinct grammatical (sub) systems across sentence boundaries within the same speech event” (Bokamba, 1989 as cited in Waris, 2012). These processes serve as strategies among bilinguals who may struggle to produce an utterance in the target language. These processes are also manifested in various linguistic landscapes.

Bulacan Agricultural State College, a higher education institution in the Philippines, serves to thousands of stakeholders, and therefore, displays a linguistic landscape. However, there is no data yet as regards the varying ethnicities and language being spoken among its stakeholders, particularly the students. Without this data, the College’s administrators and teaching personnel are not able to address relevant language issues that play as a factor on why academic instruction may not reach its full potential. It has become a default among academic institutions to utilize only the Tagalog and English language in their public signage, therefore, disregarding minority language that is indicative of the lack of linguistic pluralism. LL displays how public signs reflect the linguistic situation of a particular area. They may have relevance to power relations, language contact, and other language issues (Jazul & Bernardo, 2017).

Further, aside from linguistic pluralism, the comprehensibility of public signs should always be evaluated through a standard being implemented by an institution. In the case of BASC, offices are mandated to conform with necessary standards which includes placement and use of public signs. The ISO 9001 is an international



standard relevant to ensuring the effectiveness of the management system among educational organizations. Usually, the ISO 9001 is accompanied by the 5-S Principle, a standard describing the procedural steps in the workplace that help to create a total quality environment. The steps comprising the 5S principle namely sort (*seiri*) referring to removing things that are not necessary in the operations of the institution, straighten (*seiton*) referring to maximizing the efficiency of the flow of processes, shine (*seiso*) referring to cleaning the workplace environment, standardize (*seiketsu*) referring to labelling items or process, and sustain (*shitsuke*) referring to instilling behaviors relevant to organization so as to maintain cleanliness and order in the workplace (Nurcahyo et al., 2019).

Therefore, this study on the public signs installed in the vicinities of the Bulacan Agricultural State College is necessary not only to provide a baseline data as regards linguistic diversity in the BASC community but also to engage people in a rural setting in an ongoing discourse on multilingualism and politics of language. Thus, this study aims:

1. To classify the language used in public signs within the BASC campuses through the following criteria:
 - 1.1 Code preference
 - 1.2 Inscription
 - 1.3 Emplacement
2. To categorize the college public signs as top-down or bottom-up.
3. To Identify the language functions of the college public signs.

Research Design

Framework: The qualitative approach was utilized to examine patterns, stories, and interactions between participants (encoder-decoder), and between the public signs and participants (encoder-public sign, public sign-decoder) (Braun & Clarke, 2013). This approach assumes that there are multiple realities among people that were cultivated from observation and interview.

Trinidad (2018) emphasizes the essence of humanities approach in research through focusing on language studies.. This approach allowed the researcher to ‘analyze texts, understand their meaning, reflect on their themes, map out their context and history, and dialogue with the ideas and meanings that are parts of the human experience’.

Sources and Materials: The research sites are the three campuses of Bulacan Agricultural State College namely Main Campus, College of Agriculture Campus and Doña Remedios Trinidad (DRT) Campus. A total of 405 public signs were photographed. These public signs were categorized through Scollon and Scollon’s (2003) place semiotics, Ben-Rafael et al.’s (2006) top-down and bottom-up distinctions of LL items, and language functions by Mu’in et al. (2019). Further, an interview guide that centers on the participants’ perception on BASC’s campuscapes adopted from Wang (2015) was utilized during the semi-structured interviews.

Data Collection Procedure: Prior to the conduct of the study, the researcher sought permission from authorities to access BASC campuses and take photographs of public signs. Upon receiving the approved permit, taking photographs of the signs and posters posted in the BASC campuses was done using a digital camera. The public signs have qualified the two criteria as adopted from Jazul and Bernardo (2017) established two criteria in determining public signs that relevant for LL studies. Firstly, the signs are posted in locations where BASC officials, students and other stakeholders could see. Secondly, the signs are in a definable size and are easily seen. Once the inventory of signs was secured, the coding procedures followed.



The approach to this research enabled the study to collect data from observation and interviews facilitated by the researcher. Also, due to less strict guidelines on face-to-face transactions within various BASC offices, stakeholders were more accessible and convenient to be interviewed. Through purposive sampling, participants were filtered through the following classifications.

1. Encoders are classified as the producers or creators of the public signs that include the heads and staff of the department or unit to where the public signs are posted.
2. Decoders are classified as the consumers of the public signs that include the students, parents, community, and partner stakeholders of the programs and services offered by the college.

Data Analysis: The inventory of signs was summarized, tabulated and analyzed through the use of frequency and percentage distribution. This is supported by multi-modal analysis as this study investigates on multiple modes as in writing, images, and others. Modes are defined as “a socially shaped and culturally given resource for making meaning” (Lyons, 2016). Different modes intersect with one another, thus, creating an intermodal relationship further enriching meaning-making. A mode represents what the text is about (ideational), how the text relates to the audience (interpersonal), and how the text is organized and structured (textual). Further, in decoding underlying ideologies from the stories provided by the participants as cultivated from how they interpretation of the public signs, narrative analysis was employed (Rodriguez, 2016).

Results and Discussion

Place Semiotics of BASC Public Signs: Geosemiotics accounts for a ‘*place-based semiotic interpretation*’ of how discourses, or signs are indexed in the world. That is under the conception that people’s way of understanding the world is independent on where the people and the language being used is located in the world. It has three interconnected systems: interaction order, visual semiotics, and place semiotics (Scollon & Scollon, 2003). As the paper focuses on place semiotics, it investigates how public signs are placed within the vicinity of the College through code preference, emplacement, and inscription.

Code preference displays the language selected and used by the sign-makers. The photographed public signs in the College exhibit only two language: English and Tagalog.

As shown in Table 1, there is a total of 405 public signs posted in the Main, College of Agriculture, and DRT campuses. The code most preferred by the sign makers is English gaining 84.70%, bilingual (English and Tagalog) acquiring 11.10%, and Tagalog obtaining 4.20% among the total of public signs photographed.

Table 1 Code Preference

Language	N	%
English	343	84.70
Tagalog	17	4.20
English-Tagalog	45	11.10
Total	405	100.00

As English is used in majority of the public signs, it is reflective of the politics of language. It is how the language is perceived to be of a greater value, or is superior to Tagalog or other Filipino language. This may have been rooted since 1901 when English was the sole medium of instruction as imposed by American people that lasted until 1974, when the Bilingual Education Policy was institutionalized through the Department Order No. 25. It was during this time when the status of English as the only medium of instruction was challenged. However,

as much as Filipino language started to increase their status, English remained as the language of power and prestige (Tupas & Lorente, 2014). This view is pointed out by a faculty of the College:

“We are an academic institution kaya tama lang na most of the public signs are written in English. (We are an academic institution that is why it is only rightful that most of the public signs are written in English.)”

The politics of language is reflected in the said remark to where English or Academic English as mentioned by MacSwan (2020), is referred to as the language of the educated class, a variety of the English language that is more advanced and more complex.

Also, a common perception among Filipinos when using Tagalog and English language among public signs was observed during the interview. A participant voiced out:

“Kapag kasi Tagalog ang medium na gagamitin, wordy siya. ‘Di ba kapag announcements, dapat straightforward’. Tsaka ang perception kasi kapag English ang ginamit, sosyal (When using Tagalog as a medium of communication, it is wordy. Announcements should be straightforward. Also, there is a perception that English is associated with the upper class.)”

This sentiment contributes to the dominant use of English language as English translation are more concise or less wordy as compared to the Tagalog language. As readers often only have limited time to read, and text are written in limited spaces, it is essential that statements are simple (Qiannan, 2012).

Scrutiny of bilingual public signs presents both code-switching and code-mixing samples. Code-switching refers to the use of more than one language in a conversation as shown in Figure 1. The poster initially makes use of a Tagalog statement, *‘Dito po ang sakayan ng Sapang Putol-Pinaod TODA’* (Loading area for Sapang-Putol-Pinaod TODA) followed by an English statement such as *‘Student Fare, BASC to Matimbubong, BASC to Sapang Putol..’*

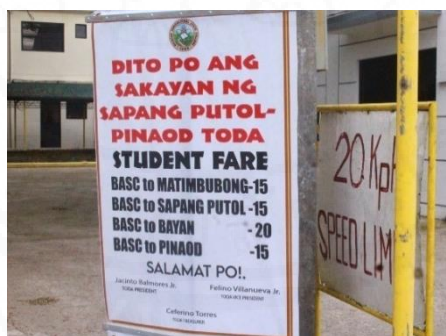


Figure 1 Student Fare Signage.

Contrarily, code-mixing refers to the use of both language in a course of a single utterance that can be reflected on different levels of language such as phonology, morphology, or syntax. As shown in Figure 2 and Figure 3, the sign-maker is constantly borrowing English words in his construction of a Tagalog statement.



Figure 2 Instruction on ID Processing.

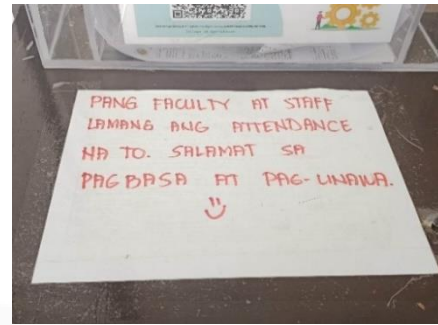


Figure 3 Reminder on Attendance.

Translation is also used in crafting public signs as shown in Figure 4 where the dominant language is English as it is initially used followed by a literal translation in Tagalog placed below. The lack of public signs displaying an English statement being translated to the Tagalog language presents sign-makers' preference of the English language.

The dominance of the language used by the sign-makers is also observed on the differences in terms of font size, as the more preferred language is written in bigger and bolder fonts as shown in Figure 5. Emphasizing words may also be done through highlighting, underlining, or circling the words using the most preferred language (De Los Reyes, 2014).

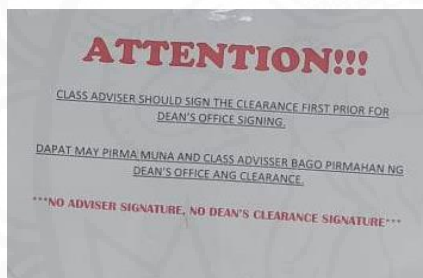


Figure 4 Sign on Clearance.



Figure 5 Motorcycle Shed.

Further, a relevant recommendation during the conduct of program accreditation was raised, that aside from English and Tagalog, a Kapampangan translation of the College's Vision, Mission, Goals, and Objectives be created. This notion also surfaced during the interview where a participant mentioned:

"Siguro dapat mayroon nu'ng ibang language na ginagamit din, kagaya ng Kapampangan. Maraming estudyante na Kapampangan 'yung alam na language'. (It's better if other language are used as well, like the Kapampangan language. There are students who prefer the Kapampangan language.)"

Considerably, BASC caters not only students who are native speakers of the Tagalog language, but also of other Filipino language. Since Pampanga is a neighboring province of Bulacan, where Kapampangan is the mother tongue, Kapampangan native speakers take up a sample of the College's population, and the addition of Kapampangan translation of the College's VMGO cultivates its acceptability and deep understanding. Leonard and Huang (2014 as cited in Jonyo et al., 2018) express how an institution's mission 'can unify and energize internal stakeholders while enhancing external stakeholders' perceptions, expectations, and possible actions'.

In a related study entitled it was found that Bukidnon State University's VMGO, with its Tagalog, Cebuano, and Binukid translations, is clear and easily comprehensible even among laypersons as the study involved participants from the public market, plaza, and IP community. Comprehensibility allows stakeholders to partake in

the fulfilment of the mission (Villanca et al., 2020). In addition, translation prevents target readers from having difficulties in understanding the texts, consequently, contextual meaning among translations should be carefully analyzed (Qiannan, 2012).

In terms of emplacement, most public signs in the Main Campus are strategically posted in conspicuous areas, expecting to facilitate frontline services for the College's stakeholders such as in the Office of the Registrar, Office of the Student Affairs, and Library.

As the Main Campus provides most services to the students of the College, administrators capitalize on the efficiency of creating and posting public signs to disseminate relevant information, whereas in areas, such as in BASC-DRT campus, that caters a small population, information dissemination is easily observed, as reiterated by a BASC-DRT Campus faculty member:

"Helpful naman 'yung public signs pero kagaya namin dito sa DRT', maliit lang 'yung campus namin so kahit limited' 'yung public signs, nama-manage namin on our level' 'yung information dissemination'. Kapag malaki na 'yung community kagaya ng main campus, baka mahirap na i-disseminate' 'yung information kahit na marami 'yung public signs'. (Public signs are helpful here in DRT. Our campus is small so even public signs are limited, information dissemination is manageable. However, if the community is big like that in the Main Campus, information dissemination may be challenging even with numerous public signs.)"

Place semiotics also exhibits the inscriptions that scrutinizes the physical materiality of public signs. Materials used in the construction of public signs in the College are paper, tarpaulin, plastic, concrete, and metal.

Public signs made of metal are expected to last long considering the durability of material used. As shown in Figure 6, the metal public signs were used to label buildings, monuments, or areas that are constructed and designated for a particular purpose.



Figure 6 BASC Information Technology Bldg.

However, as shown in Figures 7 and 8, reminders or prohibitions printed on metal may become unreadable when not maintained that consequently become unnoticeable and perceived as outdated or not applicable anymore. This may deviate the impact of the statements the public signs carry as they are not being embodied by the materials where they are inscribed. Figure 7 may be perceived as not relevant as it may be assumed as installed years ago since a layer of moss covers it. On the other hand, Figure 8 may still be considered relevant yet may not be as impactful or imposing for students or other stakeholders of the College to follow. A remark from a participant echoed the notion as he said:



“Dapat ‘yung public signs din maayos, malinis, at updated dahil kailangan nakasunod tayo sa ISO standards’. (Public signs should be organized, neat, and updated since we have to conform with the ISO standards.)”



Figure 7 No Parking Signage.



Figure 8 Keep the Campus Clean Signage.

Contrarily, public signs that are to be utilized only for a short period of time are printed on paper as they can easily be edited, modified or replaced depending on the changes carried upon by the department or office and need to be instantly relayed to the stakeholders. These include new procedures on the College’s services like enrolment, scholastic document release, and application for scholarship grant, etc. It is also common to see public signs on health requirements and protocols related with the COVID-19 pandemic.

A study on digital signage discusses the benefit of digital signs as they have the ability to change content within milliseconds as opposed to conventional signage that display only one message (Bauer et al., 2011). A college official said:

“Dapat din siguro naka-TV or audio-visual ‘yung mga public signs kasi kagaya ng GAD corners’, hindi ko pa nadaanan na may tumigil para basahin ‘yung mga announcements du’n’. Siguro kung interactive siya, baka mas effective siya. (Perhaps, public signs should be viewed via TV or in any audio-visual media like that of the GAD corners. I have never seen someone reading posted announcements there. Maybe if it’s interactive, it may have been effective.)”

Furthermore, public signs in the College make use of fonts holding professionalism, are often printed in black or red to easily catch the attention of the readers, and constructed in a concise and straightforward manner so as to make them easily comprehensible. These include Serif fonts like Times New Roman and San Serif fonts like Arial. It was found out by Doyle and Bottomley (2004 as cited in Juni & Gross, 2008) that when there seems to be a contradiction between the font’s appearance and its meaning, it is less appealing and slowly read. Public signs exhibiting fonts that are at par with the usual may either positively or negatively influence the interpretation of the message such as the use of Chiller font in Figure 9. The ability of public signs to incite emotions or persuade the intended audience to act on something may not be influencing instantly. A connotation originates when decoders perceive the appearance of the font differently to that of its intended semantic content (Juni & Gross, 2008).

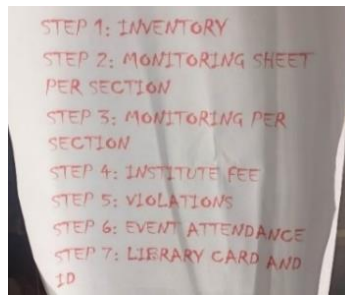


Figure 9 Steps for Clearance.

Category of Public Signs: As shown in Table 2, the public signs are categorized whether top-down or bottom-up. The top-down category comprised the 89.88% while the bottom-up category comprised the 10.12% of the total number of public signs in three campuses.

Table 2 Top-down and Bottom-up Language Distribution

Category of Public Signs	Tagalog	English	English-Tagalog	f	%
Top-Down	14	323	27	364	89.88
Bottom-Up	3	20	18	41	10.12
Total	17	343	45	405	100.00

Top-down public signs are those made or issued by administrators for their stakeholders as seen in public spaces, public announcements, and building names. On the other hand, bottom-up public signs are those made or issued by the stakeholders to the administrators such as personal announcements, company signs, business labels, program invitations, and advertisements that may be recruiting interested job applicants or participants such as shown in Figures 10 and 11.



Figure 10 Admit Boards.



Figure 11 Marathon Ad.

Aside from the issue of authorship, top-down signs are also classified as official while bottom-up are nonofficial (Gorter, 2006 as cited in De Los Reyes, 2014). This imbalance between the signs composed by administrators and stakeholders exhibits how the former claims their command and emphasize the relative power of their authority in inhabiting a given territory. On the other hand, the limited bottom-up public signs display a case of static semiotics, and lack of interaction and participation among stakeholders. Not only does it reflect the status and value of the language used among encoders but also that of their status and value as dominant agents in the institution (Juanzo, 2022; Im, 2023; Gorter & Cenoz, 2008).



In addition, it may be noted that public signs regardless of whether they are top-down or bottom-up mostly preferred the use of English, followed by the use of bilingual language, with the sole use of Tagalog as the least preferred.

Functions of Public Signs: Anchored to Finocchiaro and Brumfit's (1983 as cited in Eclipse & Tenedero, 2018) notional-functional approach to language teaching, public signs are examined not from a structural approach but through a communicative one, thus, communicative functions namely personal, interpersonal, referential, directive, and imaginative were identified. To expand the framework, the specific functions specified below were retrieved from Tedick (2002).

Table 3 Functions of Public Signs

Language Functions	N	%
Directive	136	33.59
Imaginative	1	0.25
Interpersonal	9	2.21
Personal	1	0.25
Referential	258	63.70
Total	405	100.00

Assessment of Table 3 exhibits the Referential functions of public signs as it obtained 63.70% of the total photographs gathered. Among the most common referential functions are identifying items, describing something, explaining how something works, and evaluating the results of an action or an event. Examples of public signs with referential functions is shown in Figure 12 that shows how the process of School Waste Segregation is done on campus, and Figure 13 that exhibits the Organizational Chart of the Office of Students Affairs and Services.

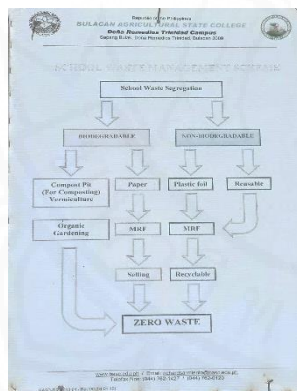


Figure 12 School Waste Segregation Process Flow.



Figure 13 BASC OSAS Organizational Chart.

Organizational charts are strategically posted in offices so as to inform stakeholders of the services they offer. However, when asked about the key officials of the College, students are not knowledgeable and have admitted that they do not refer to organization charts to make themselves informed. Organizational structure displays the internal relations in an organization so as to clarify channels of formal communication, and responsibility and decision-making designations (Ahmady et al., 2016). Therefore, students' nonchalance among organizational structures and announcements as posted in public signs may cause miscommunication and lack of efficiency among College's operations. This is supported by the following remarks:

“May instances na hindi nakakasunod ang mga bata sa instructions posted so hindi sya 100% effective. (There are instances when students are not following posted instructions and this tells that public signs are not really 100% effective).”

“Imbes na basahin ‘yung mga naka-post na announcement, nagtatanong na lang ako sa teacher o sa empleyado na dumadaan’. (Instead of reading the posted announcements, I would rather ask a passing teacher or employee.)”

Directives, acquiring 33.59%, exhibits the most common functions identified as making suggestions, establishing guidelines, and deadlines for the completions of actions, forbidding someone to do something, requesting and granting permission such as that exhibited by Figure 14.



Figure 14 No Littering.

Directives are also dominantly imbibed by public signs as they help stakeholders in moving efficiently or navigating within public spaces. This consequently cause speedy completion and ease of transactions facilitated by the College. Also, these signs establish guidelines of what should be followed, pursued, and accomplished, and what not should be done (Eclipse & Tenedero, 2018).

Aside from nonchalance, public signs that hold directive functions may not be effective due to the readers' lack of discipline as expressed by a participant:

“Alam mong naiintindihan naman ‘yung mga public signs pero nasa disiplina na lang din ng bumabasa kung susundin niya’ ‘yung nakasulat du’n’. Minsan nga kahit tayong faculty, kapag sinabing ‘No parking’, ang assumption, pwede tayong magpark kasi teachers naman tayo. Baka sa estudyante lang siya nag-a-apply. (Public signs are comprehensible. It only depends on the discipline of the reader as to whether he will follow what was written there. Sometimes, even us, faculty members assume that when a public sign says, ‘No Parking’, we can still park there as we are entitled to do so as teachers, that perhaps, the public sign only applies to students.)”

Interpersonal functions, garnering 2.21%, include greetings and leave-takings, introducing oneself to others, expressing joy at another's success as instilled in Figure 15. The public sign expresses the relationship between the encoder and decoder. The teachers were able to initiate a positive relationship with the students for the resumption of classes as they introduce themselves. On the other hand, Figure 16, that is accounted as under the directive function as it requests for information. Feedback forms are placed in areas which provide client services. With this in place, clients are encouraged to give their feedback regarding the college's service through accomplishing the client satisfaction forms. Additionally, Figure 16 may also be considered as under the interpersonal



function as among Filipinos, the patterned routine of using *kumusta* (*how are you*) in conversations is indicative of the people's politeness and thoughtfulness as it initiates, establishes, and catalyzes positive interactions. It further builds and maintains social relationships (Cheng, 2022).



Figure 15 Meet your Teachers.



Figure 16 Kumusta Ang Aming Serbisyo? (How's our Service?)

Public signs that embody imaginative functions such as discussing a story, text, or an advertisement, expanding ideas suggested by others or by a piece of reading, and creating scripts only acquired 0.25%. Example of imaginative function is exhibited by Figure 17 as the advocacy campaign on Safe Spaces Act makes use of script to establish a relevant scenario.



Figure 17 GAD Poster.

Personal function such as expressing one's thoughts or feelings like that of Figure 18 also gained 0.25%. The *I love/heart BASC* is a public sign strategically placed in front of the Administration Building and is often used as a background when taking photos and therefore, solidifies the sign's semantic content.



Figure 18 I Love BASC.



Conclusion and Recommendations

Analysis of the data reveals that bilingualism is observed in the College. English and Tagalog language play a dominant role not only in the classrooms but within BASC grounds. This further implies that even with the existence of other Filipino language, as were used by students and faculty who migrated from other provinces in the Philippines, English is found to be the dominant code preference as the language holds power and prestige, particularly with the notion that English is the language of the educated class, and that minority language remain decapitalized. Also, public signs were inscribed using various materials such as metal or concrete, adding semantic content to the text that indeed written messages or statements in these types of material are relevant for a long period of time, while the frequent use of papers in posting announcements exhibits the constantly changing guidelines or policies in certain processes. Public signs are strategically placed in offices where most stakeholder-oriented processes occur.

Public signs that are categorized as top-down overwhelm those of categorized as bottom-up. Administrators capitalize on the utilization of public signs for fast and easy information dissemination on College's announcements. However, this does not always translate to the public as some are usually passive and nonchalant, and prefer verbal instructions than reading most public signs. Therefore, the occurrence of miscommunication due to mismatch between encoders' intention and decoders' interpretation even with numerous postings of public signs imply its inefficiency and therefore, demands further standardization of processes and strategic planning on target readership.

The BASC's campuscapes are comprised mostly of public signs with referential function so as to keep various stakeholders oriented with College's policies and systems, followed by Directives, Interpersonal, Imaginative, and Personal, respectively.

Thus, it is vital for encoders, particularly of public signs categorized as top-down, to carefully and strategically plan and create public signs that are clear, relevant, and audience sensitive in order to keep the College's processes efficient and adherent to the set standards by various certifying bodies. Further, the study on linguistic landscape of the BASC community is also recommended to serve as basis for the creation of guidelines on public signs within BASC campuses and for the development of language instructional materials with the aim that teachers and students be culturally sensitive through promoting multilingualism, positive language ideologies, and information literacy.

Lastly, the study is recommended to be further explored by future researchers to provide a linguistic landscape framework on how Filipino language can better be utilized and promoted among public areas. This framework may aim not to position the Filipino language higher than the English language, but at least to that of equal footing.

References

- Ahmady, G. A., Mehrpour, M., & Nikooravesh, A. (2016). Organizational Structure. *Procedia—Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 230, 455–462. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2016.09.057>
- Bauer, C., Dohmen, P., & Strauss, C. (2011). Interactive Digital Signage – An Innovative Service and Its Future Strategies. In *2011 International Conference on Emerging Intelligent Data and Web Technologies, Polytechnic University of Tirana, Tirana, Albania, 7–9 September 2011* (pp. 137–142). USA.: Conference Publishing Services (CPS). <https://doi.org/10.1109/EIDWT.2011.29>



- Ben-Rafael, E., Shohamy, E., Amara, M. H., & 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. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14790710608668383>
- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2013). *Successful Qualitative Research: A Practical Guide for Beginners*. London: SAGE Publishing.
- Cao, H., Liu, Y., & Chen, H. (2022). Mapping the Linguistic Landscape in a Chinese University. *Open Access Library Journal*, 9, e9585. <https://doi.org/10.4236/oalib.1109585>
- Cheng, S. (2022). A Comparative Study of Tagalog and Mandarin Greetings. *International Journal of Education and Humanities*, 5(1), 146–150. <https://doi.org/10.54097/ijeh.v5i1.1959>
- De Los Reyes, R. A. (2014). Language of “Order”: English in the Linguistic Landscape of Two Major Train Stations in the Philippines. *Asian Journal of English Language Studies*, 2, 20–42. <https://doi.org/10.59960/2.a2>
- Eclipse, A., & Tenedero, P. P. P. (2018). The Linguistic Landscape of Manila Central Post Office: A Macro-linguistic Analysis. *Asian Journal of English Language Studies*, 6, 158–178. <https://doi.org/10.59960/6.a6>
- Finocchiaro, M., & Brumfit, C. (1983). *The Functional-notional Approach: From Theory to Practice*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Gorter, D. (2006). Introduction: The Study of the Linguistic Landscape as a New Approach to Multilingualism. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 3(1), 1–6. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14790710608668382>
- Gorter, D., & Cenoz, J. (2008). Knowledge about Language and Linguistic Landscape. In N. H. Hornberger (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Language and Education, Volume 6: Knowledge about Language, Section 4: Knowledge about Language, Bilingualism and Multilingualism* (2nd ed., pp. 2090–2102). Boston, MA: Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-0-387-30424-3_160
- Griffin, E. (2011). *First Look at Communication Theory* (8th ed.). USA.: McGraw-Hill Education.
- Guo, Y., & Zhao, B. (2021). The Discourse Communication Function of Urban Linguistic Landscape. In *Proceedings of the 2020 International Conference on Language, Communication and Culture Studies (ICLCCS 2020), Advances in Social Science, Education and Humanities Research, Volume 537* (pp. 86–89). China: Atlantis Press. <https://doi.org/10.2991/assehr.k.210313.016>
- Im, J.-H. (2023). The Linguistic Landscape as an Identity Construction Site of a United States’ Higher Educational Institution in the Time of COVID-19. *Education as Change*, 27, 1–26. <https://doi.org/10.25159/1947-9417/11405>
- Jacobs, G. M., & Kline Liu, K. (1996). Integrating Language Functions and Collaborative Skills in the Second Language Classroom. *TESL Reporter*, 29, 21–33.



Jazul, M. E. M. A., & Bernardo, A. S. (2017). A Look into Manila Chinatown's Linguistic Landscape: The Role of Language and Language Ideologies. *Philippine Journal of Linguistics*, 48, 75–98. Retrieved from <https://www.pjl-phil.com/article/2017/48/maria-eena-maxine-a.-jazul-%26-alejandro-s.-bernardo>

Jonyo, B. O., Ouma, C., & Mosoti, Z. (2018). The Effect of Mission and Vision on Organizational Performance within Private Universities in Kenya. *European Journal of Educational Sciences*, 5(2), 15–33. <https://doi.org/10.19044/ejes.v5no2a2>

Juanzo, C. J. M. (2022). The Construction of Public Space through Language. *International Journal of Linguistics and Translation Studies*, 3(3), 113–124. <https://doi.org/10.36892/ijlts.v3i3.197>

Juni, S., & Gross, J. S. (2008). Emotional and Persuasive Perception of Fonts. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 106(1), 35–42. <https://doi.org/10.2466/pms.106.1.35-42>

Landry, R., & Bourhis, R. Y. (1997). Linguistic Landscape and Ethnolinguistic Vitality: An Empirical Study. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 16(1), 23–49. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0261927X970161002>

Lyons, A. (2016). Multimodality. In Z. Hua (Ed.), *Research Methods in Intercultural Communication: A Practical Guide* (pp. 268–280). New Jersey: Wiley–Blackwell. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781119166283.ch18>

MacSwan, J. (2020). Academic English as Standard Language Ideology: A Renewed Research Agenda for Asset-based Language Education. *Language Teaching Research*, 24(1), 28–36. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168818777540>

Manalatas, N. E. L. (2022). The Good and the Bad: The Social Role and Position of English in the Philippines. *UP Working Papers in Linguistics*, 1(1), 211–214.

Manalatas, N. E. L. (2023). Prestige, Language Politics, and the Walled City: An Exploratory Study of the Linguistic Landscape of Intramuros, Manila. *SocArXiv*, 2023, 1–27. <https://doi.org/10.31235/osf.io/6ywd2>

Mu'in, F., Kamal, S., Indriani, S., & Al-Arief, Y. (2019). *Sociolinguistics: A Language Study in Sociocultural Perspectives*. Banjarmasin, Indonesia: Jurusan Pendidikan Bahasa dan Seni, Fakultas Keguruan dan Ilmu Pendidikan, Universitas Lambung Mangkurat.

Nasir, H. Z., Lodhi, M. A., & Anwar, S. (2019). Textual and Semiotic Analysis of the Linguistic Landscapes in Government and Private Schools. *Sumerianz Journal of Education, Linguistics and Literature*, 2(11), 93–103.

Nurcahyo, R., Apriliani, F., Muslim, E., & Wibowo, A. D. (2019). The Analysis of the Implementation of 5-S Principles Integrated with ISO 9001 Requirements at Higher Education Level. *SAGE Open*, 9(3), 1–10. <https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244019870773>

Qiannan, M. (2012). Research on the Translation of Public Signs. *English Language Teaching*, 5(4), 168–172. <http://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v5n4p168>



Rodriguez, M. C. G. (2016). The Stories We Tell Each Other: Using Technology for Resistance and Resilience Through Online Narrative Communities. In S. Y. Tettegah, & Y. E. Garcia (Eds.), *Emotions, Technology, and Health* (pp. 125–147). USA.: Academic Press. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-801737-1.00007-X>

Scollon, R., & Scollon, S. W. (2003). *Discourses in Place: Language in the Material World*. London: Routledge.

Tedick, D. J. (Ed.). (2002). *Proficiency-oriented Language Instruction and Assessment: A Curriculum Handbook for Teachers* (CARLA Working Paper Series). Minneapolis, MN: University of Minnesota, The Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition. Retrieved from <https://carla.umn.edu/articulation/handbook.html>

Trinidad, J. E. (2018). *Researching Philippine Realities: A Guide to Qualitative, Quantitative, and Humanities Research*. Philippines: Ateneo de Manila University Press.

Tupas, R., & Lorente, B. P. (2014). A ‘New’ Politics of Language in the Philippines: Bilingual Education and the New Challenge of the Mother Tongues. In P. Sercombe, & R. Tupas (Eds.), *Language, Education and Nation-building* (pp. 165–180). London: Palgrave Macmillan. https://doi.org/10.1057/9781137455536_9

Villanca, A. A., Binayao, B. S., Caterial, M. Z., & Ablanque, V. C. (2020). Assessing the Vision, Mission, Goals, and Objectives of a State University in Southern Philippines. *International Journal of Innovative Science and Research Technology*, 5(10), 189–194. Retrieved from <https://ijisrt.com/assessing-the-vision-mission-goals-and-objectives-of-a-state-university-in-southern-philippines>

Wang, J.-J. (2015). Linguistic Landscapes on Campus in Japan – A Case Study of Signs in Kyushu University. *Intercultural Communication Studies*, 24(1), 123–144.

Waris, A. M. (2012). Code Switching and Mixing (Communication in Learning Language). *Jurnal Dakwah Tabligh*, 13(1), 123–135.