PalArch's Journal of Archaeology of Egypt / Egyptology

AN EXPLORATION OF THE LINGUISTIC LANDSCAPE OF DISTRICT NOWSHERA- KHYBER PAKHTUNKHWA: A CASE STUDY

Urooj Mahmood[1], Mujahid Shah[2], Abdul Waheed Qureshi[3], Neelam Sultan[4]

[1] MPhil Scholar, Department of English, Abdul Wali Khan University Mardan

[2,3] Assistant Professor, Department of English, Abdul Wali Khan University Mardan

[4] Department of English, Khushal Khan Khattak University Karak

Corresponding Author Email: [3] waheedqureshi@awkum.edu.pk

ABSTRACT

The linguistic landscape of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa (KPK) - Pakistan, was explored with respect to employing various multilingual writing techniques. The current research compared and contrasted the multilingual top-down and bottom-up signs. It employed purposive and convenience sampling techniques to capture images of 200 multilingual signs. Photographs were subsequently analyzed using a mixed-method approach. The analysis was directed by Thongtong's (2016) and Reh's (2004) multilingual strategies. The results revealed that the top-down linguistic landscape actors primarily employed fragmentary and transliteration techniques. On the other hand, the bottom-up signs were dominated by transliteration and complementary techniques. Though, according to Pakistan's 1973 constitution, Urdu was expected to gain official status within the next 15 years yet, the transliteration technique highlights the privileged and symbolic position of the English language despite bilingual language policy. Bottom-up signs are more varied than the top-down ones, as demonstrated by the supremacy of complementary strategy. The mismatch between language policy and its execution is demonstrated in this way. The significance of the linguistic landscape in revealing various forms of embedded identities and defining English as a potent linguistic tool, is discussed in this study.

INTRODUCTION

Pakistan is a country with a diverse linguistic and cultural landscape. It is comprised of four provinces: Baluchistan, Sindh, North-West Frontier Province (NWFP), and Punjab. In 2010, the North-West Frontier Province (NWFP) was renamed Khyber Pakhtunkhwa (KPK) under the 18th amendment to Pakistan's constitution. Khyber Pakhtunkhwa (KPK) is the third most populous and economically prosperous province in Pakistan. Each of the four provinces has one or more prominent language(s) and a variety of indigenous languages. Pashto is the most widely spoken language in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa. Moreover, it has three lesser-used languages including Punjabi, Hindko, and Urdu. The linguistic map of Pakistan is quite complex with several regional languages, including Khowar, Haryanvi, Wakhi, Burushaski, Marwari, Balti, Punjabi, Dhatki, Pashto, Pahari-Pothwari, Dogri, Brahue, Shina, Hindko, Balochi, Kashmiri, Kalasha, Kalami, Saraiki, Gujari, Ghera, and Sindhi etc. (Rahman, 2008). Manan, David, Dumanig, and Channa (2017) discussed that Pakistan has 59 regional or indigenous languages in addition to six major languages. The six primary languages include Seraiki, Punjabi, Pashto, Balochi, Urdu, and Sindhi. According to the 2017 census, Punjabi is used by 38.78% of Pakistanis, Seraiki by 12.19%, and Balochi by 3.02%. Urdu was reported as the mother tongue of 7.08% of Pakistanis. 18.24% of people mentioned Pashto as their first language and Sindhi by 14.57% of the Pakistani people as their first language.

Language is a means of interaction as well as an expression of our economic, social, and cultural ties. It is noticeable in road signs, written directions, graffiti, shop signs, traffic signs, billboard advertisements, etc. (Gorter, 2006). The linguistic landscape of a region or territory is made up of these various textual forms. The linguistic landscape is a complex phenomenon that involves a wide variety of perspectives and disciplines, including sociology, semiotics, media, history, and advertising. The pioneering work of Landry and Bourhis (1997) is a crucial contribution to the field of linguistic landscape studies. The phrase linguistic landscape was coined by them. In their definition, it is described as "the language used on promotional displays, street or place names, and commercial shop signs, as well as signs on government buildings and public road signs in a region" (p. 25). The linguistic landscape serves a variety of functions. These are divided into two broad categories by Landry and Bourhis (1997): informative and symbolic functions. The informative function aids to identify various languages used in a territory for interaction, marketing, advertising, and other purposes. The perceived importance, worth, and potency of languages are all explained by the symbolic function of the linguistic landscape.

Semiotics is the study of signs and symbols. It also studies their usage and interpretations; hence, linguistic landscape studies have semiotic foundations. A sign is defined as "any written material found in public space" (Backhaus, 2006: 55). Two types of signs are identified by Backhaus (2007), including public and semiotic signs. Backhaus (2007) described that a semiotic sign refers to "a thing, feature, or a scene whose existence implies the anticipated existence of something" (p. 4) and that a "posted statement in a public space that either gives the symbolic interpretation or delivers information is a public sign" (p. 5). A subtype of the semiotic sign is a public sign. Two types of public signs are

outlined by Ben-Rafael, Shohamy, Amara, and Trumper-Hecht (2006), including the bottom-up and the top-down signs. Signs in the latter category correspond to the language policies of the state, whereas people and organizations are free to make signs in the former category. Municipalities, public agencies, and government are public authorities that develop top-down signs. On the contrary, private enterprises, corporations, and organizations design bottom-up signs. These include store signs, private advertisements, and signs for various private organizations (Ben-Rafael et al., 2006). Signs pertaining to public pronouncements, street names, traffic signs, signs of common interest, and government institutions are all examples of top-down signs (Ben-Rafael et al., 2006). Similarly, researchers have used categories such as private vs. government (Landry & Bourhis, 1997) and non-official vs. official (Backhaus, 2006) to classify the linguistic landscape signs.

Different researchers (Gorter & Cenoz, 2006; Jingjing, 2013; Landry & Bourhis, 1997; Moriarty, 2014; Huebner, 2006; Wang, 2015), investigated several issues such as ethnolinguistic vitality, mobility, and language policy in linguistic landscape research. For instance, Jingjing (2013) researched shop signs in Beijing, China. He examined shop signs in light of China's current language policy. He came across both English and bilingual Chinese-English shop signs. The linguistic landscape of 15 Bangkok neighbourhoods was investigated by Huebner (2006) in terms of private and public signs languages. A study conducted by Wang (2015) investigated the linguistic landscape inside the premises of Kyushu University in Japan. He examined the experiential, physical, and political dimensions of multilingual signs. The use of multiple languages was explored within the university's premises by querying students. They preferred both English and Japanese. Bilingual English and Japanese signs predominated, with the latter being the most prevalent.

The linguistic landscape of Pakistan has only been explored by few researchers, although the country is multilingual and multi-ethnic. For instance, the linguistic landscape of Quetta was examined by Manan et al., (2017). Commercial shop signs of Swat were investigated by Nikolaou and Shah (2019). They deduced that some shop signs were monolingual in English while the overwhelming majority of shop signs were bilingual (Urdu and English). Shahzad, Hussain, Sarwat, Nabi, and Ahmed (2020) selected traffic signboards on Pakistani motorways and roads as their unit of study. They surveyed four provinces, and the various techniques that traffic signboards utilized to facilitate language acquisition were analyzed. They indicated the employment of English and Mandarin, as well as partial translations in both languages. Many Chinese communities speak the Mandarin language. As a result, the influence of China is demonstrated by the existence of Mandarin in Pakistan. All these studies examine the uniqueness of the Pakistani environment, where English being a foreign language, dominates the linguistic landscape. However, none of these studies have gone into detail about the strategies used in a multilingual setting. As a result, the current study examined Pakistan's linguistic landscape through the lens of Thongtong (2016) and Reh's (2004) multilingual writing strategies. The study is limited to the linguistic landscape of Nowshera district, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa. It concentrates on the publicly displayed written form of language.

The research intends to answer the following research questions:

i. What multilingual writing techniques are employed by the linguistic landscape actors in Pakistan's linguistic landscape of Nowshera?
ii. In terms of the use of multilingual writing techniques, how do the top-down signs differ from the bottom-up signs?

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The Notion of Linguistic Landscape

The pioneering work of Landry and Bourhis (1997) is a crucial contribution to the field of linguistic landscape studies. Several research studies have been conducted to broaden the concept of the linguistic landscape and analyze public signs (Backhaus, 2006: 2007; Ben-Rafael et al., 2006; Shohamy & Waksman, 2009). The linguistic landscape (LL) is defined by Landry and Bourhis (1997) as: "The language of advertising billboards, place names, street names, commercial store signs, government building signs, and public road signs of a region" (p. 25). Their description of the linguistic landscape was critiqued by several researchers, including Ben-Rafael et al. (2006), Shohamy and Waksman (2009), and Backhaus (2006; 2007). They were biased in favor of stationary signs and overlooked dynamic aspects of the linguistic landscape.

According to Ben-Rafael et al. (2006), the linguistic landscape refers to "any written statement, announcement, brochure, or sign found within or even outside public and private enterprises and organizations" (p. 14). As part of landscape studies, they incorporated all outdoor and internal signs. Shohamy and Waksman (2009) asserted that it encompasses more than just immobile or fixed signs and words i.e. "the linguistic landscape transcends written material and comprises an endless number of text types, such as images, verbal texts, objects, and even humans" (p. 314). Currency notes, passports, tickets, and stamps are all instances of mobile signs and elements of the linguistic landscape. Backhaus (2007) asserted:

Small scribbled stickers to advertising signboards or billboards outside establishments or buildings as the linguistic landscape signs. Pull and push labels on entrance doors, botanic explanation slabs on tree trunks, and shoe carpets with some printed content are all instances of signs. Carriers are the things to which signs are mounted (e.g., a door, a store window, a wall, a building etc.). (p. 66)

Linguistic Landscape Studies: An Overview

It is vital to include all relevant studies in the literature review to describe the research origin. Researchers explored various elements of the linguistic landscape in different situations and emphasized various units. For example, Kallen (2009) treated all signs within the shop as distinct units of analysis, whereas Gorter and Cenoz (2006) considered them as a single unit. The seminal work of Landry and Bourhis (1997) is regarded as the most significant

fundamental research in the field of linguistic landscape studies. This study is concerned with ethnolinguistic vitality. It is demonstrated that the linguistic landscape actors' outgroup and ingroup affiliation can be investigated by focusing on the linguistic landscape in the given area. Following Landry and Bourhis' (1997) pioneering work, the second significant contribution was several linguistic landscape-related conferences in cities across the globe, including Tel Aviv, Addis Ababa, Siena, Namur, and Strasbourg. These conferences unified a diverse group of researchers with an interest in linguistic diversity research. These researchers used a variety of methods to gather and interpret data about the linguistic landscape. Empirical techniques were employed by Gorter and Cenoz (2006) and Ben-Rafael et al., (2006) to investigate the extent of appearance of indigenous and predominant languages.

They found that minority languages rarely appeared as compared to the dominant languages in the linguistic landscape. On the other hand, Reh (2004) investigated multilingualism in Lira and proposed a model of four multilingual writing strategies. Hult (2003) studied the relation between Swedish and English in the shopping streets of Swedish towns from a language ecology approach. They also explored two different categories of signs in a variety of contexts, such as Quebec (Landry & Bourhis, 1997), Israel (Ben-Rafael et al., 2006), Bangkok (Huebner, 2006), Tokyo (Backhaus, 2006), Malaysia (Andria, Anuarudin, Heng & Abdullah, 2013) and Yemen (Al-Athwary, 2017). Backhaus (2006) chose Tokyo as his research site and official and official signs as his unit of analysis. He explored Tokyo's linguistic landscape. Chinese, Korean, Latin, English, and Japanese appeared on multilingual official signs; Japanese being the overwhelmingly dominant language in 99% of them. On the contrary, non-official signs exclusively incorporated a range of languages such as Spanish, Thai, French, Persian, Tagalog, Italian, Arabic, Portuguese, Russian, and German.

The linguistic landscape of 15 Bangkok neighborhoods was investigated by Huebner (2006) in terms of private and public signs languages. He concluded that government-sponsored signs, such as street names and traffic signs, utilized English and Thai, whereas private signs employed a variety of languages, including Chinese. As a result, he claims that in contrast to government-sponsored signs, private ones exhibit greater language diversity. Al-Athwary (2014) chose Sanaa, the largest city and de jure capital of Yemen, as his unit of analysis. He examined store signs in Sana's Street and revealed different errors, including grammatical, lexical, and typographical. He investigated multilingual signs in relation to Sutherland's (2015) and Reh's (2004) perspectives of linguistic strategies. The survey showed that fragmentary and duplicating techniques were the most common. Bottom-up signs used these strategies more frequently than the top-down signs.

Almost every country has a language policy for using languages in different domains of life e.g., education and media. Therefore, a close look at linguistic landscape studies reveals that researchers have investigated the linguistic landscape concerning the language policy of different countries (Andria et al., 2013; Gorter & Cenoz, 2006; Jingjing, 2013). For instance, Gorter and Cenoz (2006) studied the linguistic landscape of Frisian and Basque concerning the

language policy and the spread of English. They concluded that the linguistic landscape of the Basque country reflects language policy. Unlike Basque, Frisian's language policy is reflected negatively in its linguistic landscape. Andria et al., (2013) analyzed Malaysian billboard advertisements. Malaysia's official language is Bahasa Malaysia, which is mandated to be used as the sole or along with other languages in multilingual billboards under the country's advertisement law (enacted in 1982). According to the findings, Bahasa Malaysia was not incorporated in all billboards; instead, other languages were also used. Signs in the public sector were written in Bahasa Malaysia, whereas private signs used English. They drew attention to the disparity between official language policy and its actual execution.

The linguistic landscape of Quetta, Baluchistan, was examined by Manan et al., (2017). They interviewed shop owners to explore the reasons for extensively using English lexical terms in commercial shop signboards. They described various reasons, including market trend, the attractiveness of the English language, its linguistic richness and inherent prestige of English, etc. The study reported that English is used for instrumental purposes. Commercial shop signs were investigated by Nikolaou and Shah (2019) in connection to Ben-Rafael's (2009) collective identity and power relations principles. They deduced that some shop signs were monolingual in English, while the overwhelming majority of shop signs were bilingual (Urdu and English) in Swat. As Urdu and English have co-official status in Pakistan, it illustrated the English language's dominance as well as the language conflict between the two. Kandel (2019) explored Nepal's linguistic landscape. He asserted that multilingualism, minority languages, and language policy can all be investigated by examining the relative status of languages.

Landscape studies were investigated from a variety of perspectives by the researchers, such as Andria et al., (2013), Al-Athwary (2014; 2017), Backhaus (2006; 2007), Gorter and Cenoz (2006), Huebner (2006), Hult (2003) and Kandel, (2019). However, the linguistic landscape is explored scarcely in South Asian countries. In the same way, few researchers have delved into Pakistan's multilingual landscape. For example, the linguistic landscape of Swat and Quetta was investigated by Nikolaou and Shah (2019) and Manan et al., (2017) respectively. Shahzad et al., (2020) selected traffic signboards on Pakistani motorways and roads as their unit of study. These studies, however, are constrained in several respects, including scope, content, and method. The current research examines the linguistic landscape of Nowshera, Pakistan, with a particular focus on multilingual writing inscriptions.

Theoretical Perspective of the Study

Khyber Pakhtunkhwa's district Nowshera was the subject of this investigation, which sought to examine the linguistic landscape. Thongtong's (2016) and Reh's (2004) perspectives of linguistic strategies provided direction for the current investigation.

Reh (2004) explained four multilingual writing strategies such as duplicating, fragmentary, overlapping, and complementary strategies. Multilingual writing

that entails the complete translation of information into multiple languages is known as duplicating multilingual writing. Instead of providing the same information in a complementary strategy, developers incorporate various languages to provide additional information. A strategy in which only a few selected portions are translated into another language while the entire sign is in one language is known as fragmentary multilingualism. Multiple languages are used to convey information in overlapping multilingualism. In this strategy, more than one language provides distinct details simultaneously. Every language gives some novel and additional information in addition to a partial translation, which is unique to that language. Overlapping and complementary multilingual signs necessitates multilingual readers.

Different linguistic, rhetorical, and literary strategies were discussed by Thongtong (2016). Various techniques, such as lexical blends, transliteration, hybrid syntactic structures, acronyms, politeness strategies, are used in these strategies. Transliteration is related to visually converting sentences and terms constructed in one orthography to their corresponding characters in another orthography. Transliterated multilingual signs are a style of writing that employs other language letters or alphabets by maintaining the original language pronunciation. The transliteration technique of Thongtong (2016) has been chosen as the fifth multilingual writing strategy because Reh's (2004) strategies were insufficient to examine all photographs.

METHODOLOGY

Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed research investigations are the three broad categories of research. Every research strategy has advantages and disadvantages, but these are determined by the nature of the study, the research objectives, and the theoretical frameworks used. Quantitative research collects numeric data with preset tools. Similarly, analysis is carried out based on various statistical models that aid in statistical data analysis. The information is compiled and plotted on a graph. Qualitative research, on the other hand, delves deeper into a phenomenon that cannot be evaluated quantitatively. Comprehension and evaluation of phenomena in their natural environment are key components of this field of research. To analyze qualitative data, researchers ought to have an inquisitive and inventive approach. In a single study, researchers can use both qualitative and quantitative data gathering and analysis methods. In mixed-method research, researchers incorporate qualitative and quantitative methods into one study. Interviews, for example, can be used to gather pertinent data, which is then quantitatively evaluated via SPSS software or Excel Spreadsheets.

The first question of this study was qualitative in nature related to various multilingual writing strategies, whereas the second question compared the occurrences of writing strategies in both categories of signs statistically. Therefore, the current investigation employed a mixed-method approach.

Data could not be collected from all divisions and districts of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa. As a result, the Nowshera district has been chosen as the most suitable area for obtaining data. This study overlooked monolingual signs because it aimed to investigate multilingual ones. As a result, purposive and

convenience sampling was opted to collect multilingual signs from different areas of the district of Nowshera. Photographs of 200 multilingual signs were taken through an android high-megapixel camera. In terms of data gathering, the research adhered to Landry and Bourhis' (1997) linguistic landscape elements. As part of the linguistic landscape research, they included "store signs, promotional displays, street names, road signs, place names, private sector, and government establishments' exhibited signs" (p. 25). As a result, only static signs were gathered, as they are more durable and expressive in nature. In the same way, only the outdoor signs were analyzed and the indoor signs were ignored. Thongtong's (2016) and Reh's (2004) linguistics strategies were used as frameworks to analyze multilingual signs. These strategies have been explained with appropriate examples from a selected corpus of study. Photographs are analyzed question-wise.

Data Analysis

The study used 200 multilingual signs as the unit of analysis. The first question was analyzed qualitatively, whereas the quantitative approach was used for the other one.

Question 1. What multilingual writing techniques are employed by the linguistic landscape actors in Pakistan's linguistic landscape of Nowshera? The ways in which information is conveyed and the usage of multilingual techniques were explored in relation to multilingual signs. The investigation reveals that five multilingual techniques, such as duplicating, complementary, fragmentary, transliteration, and overlapping, have been employed in the linguistic landscape of Nowshera. The multilingual signs were dominated by English. Signs also incorporated Pashto, Urdu, and Arabic languages.

Different multilingual writing strategies are explained in the next section, together with suitable illustrations. The results of the investigation demonstrate that five multilingual techniques have been identified in the data. Examples from the data are used to describe each multilingual writing technique.

Complementary Multilingualism

It refers to a multilingual sign in which developers incorporate various languages to convey supplementary information. These signs necessitate multilingual readers. The audience must be competent in all incorporated languages to interpret the entire sign (Reh, 2004). Unlike the other three, this technique does not rely on mutual translation between languages. Backhaus (2007) referred to this complementary strategy as polyphonic signs.

Figures 1 and 2 are bottom-up multilingual signs, including a billboard advertisement and a shop signboard. Instead of including English as one of the multiple languages, developers employed the Urdu and Arabic languages in figure 1. The store owner's name and the store's name are written in Urdu as ظاہر شاہ and ظاہرشاہ الیکٹرک سٹور respectively. In the same way, secondary details are given as 'یہاں پر بجلی کا معیاری سامان بازار سے بارعایت دستیاب ہے' in Urdu. The Quran's language is Arabic and also serves as a religious identity marker for

Muslims. As a result, this language carries symbolic significance for Muslims. Linguistic landscape actors incorporate Arabic to make short prayers to Allah, the Almighty. Three Arabic phrases appear in the sign text in figure 1. These have symbolic importance for Muslims. For example, Masha Allah (ما شاء الله) expresses delight, appreciation, or thankfulness for an event. It is generally employed to seek Allah's protection from evil forces. The Arabic phrases Ya Qayyum (یا قیوم) and Ya Hayyu (یا حی) signify "O eternal maintainer, O living!". These are used to appeal to Allah, the Almighty, for assistance. The Urdu language serves an informational purpose, while Arabic performs symbolic functions.

Figure 1. Electric store

Figure 2 advertises Charsadda Cricket League (CCL). General and specific information about this upcoming tournament is delivered in Pashto, Urdu, and English. All these languages serve informational purposes. It has the monogram of the Charsadda Cricket League (CCL) in the upper left corner, whereas the sentence in Naskh style of the Pashto language is in the right corner. Bottom-up developers incorporated the Pashto language to welcome visitors to Hashnagar by employing a Naskh style sentence as 'هشنغرته په خیراغلے'. Hashnagar (هشنغر) is a town in Charsadda. The organizing committee is described as 'ضلعی حکومت چارسده'in Urdu. The following information is provided in English: March 2021 (the time period), T20 league, live coverage of matches, director of marketing, and the cricket ground. As a result, this billboard advertisement exemplifies complementary multilingualism. The primary texts are written in English, while Pashto and Urdu provide additional details.

Figure 2. Billboard advertisement

Overlapping Multilingualism

Multiple languages are used to convey information in overlapping multilingualism. In this strategy, more than one language provides distinct details simultaneously. Every language includes some novel additional information in addition to a partial translation, which is unique to that language. Backhaus (2007) described overlapping and fragmentary multilingualism as mixed signs, but Reh (2004) differentiated between them.

Figures 3 and 4 are examples of overlapped bottom-up and top-down multilingual signs. Urdu and English languages are employed by the linguistic landscape actors to supply the same information along with some additional details. Figure 3 is the signboard of a pharmacy store (bottom-up sign), and a medical institute is exemplified in figure 4 (top-down sign). The name of a pharmacy store is translated into both languages in figure 3. Additionally, English provides information about the name of the store owner (Shahzad Sultan) and the name of the store (a pharmacy store). On the contrary, secondary detail is given as 'هر قسم دوائیاں بازار سے بارعایت دستیاب ہے' in the Urdu language.

Figure 3. Pharmacy store

Figure 4 comprises accessible fields, the name of an organization, and contact information. It is a medical institute's signboard. Content is translated partially along with some extra information in English and Urdu languages. The name of

the medical institute is translated into both languages. Nowshera institute of medical sciences is written in Urdu as نوشہرہ انسٹیٹیوٹ آف میڈیکل سائنسز. Similarly, both these languages are incorporated to name the various accessible courses, such as anesthesia (اینستھیزیا), radiography (ریڈیالوجی), surgery (سرجیکل), health (ہیلتھ), dentistry (ڈینٹل), and pharmacy (فارمیسی). English offers further information regarding the availability of laboratory technician courses, and ultrasound courses are only advertised in Urdu. Western Arabic numerals and the English language are used to describe the organization's association and contact details. English holds the highest central position, indicating its prominence over Urdu. Developers provided most information in English; therefore, the language serves as an informational tool.

Figure 4. Institute of Medical sciences

Fragmentary Multilingualism

A strategy in which only a few selected portions are translated into another language while the entire sign is in one language is known as fragmentary multilingualism. The intended readers for this strategy are monolinguals and multilinguals. The targeted audience for approximately all multilingual signs is Pakistani nationals. As a result, information is offered in English to some extent, with Urdu serving as the main language.

Figures 5 and 6 are illustrations of bottom-up fragmentary multilingual signs. Figure 5 is a commercial signboard of a furniture showroom. It is a multilingual sign because developers incorporated three languages to provide two different pieces of information, including the title and delivery details. This sign's primary language is Urdu, with English as a secondary language for translating its name. The name of a furniture showroom is translated as "Taj Mahal furniture showroom" in English. Arabic is the third language, which is an identity marker for Muslims and depicts Muslim culture. Its delivery details are given in Urdu as ہمارے ہاں ہر قسم کا فرنیچر ہے نیزآرڈر پر بھی تیار کیا جاتا ہے. Masha Allah (ما شاء الله) expresses delight, appreciation, or thankfulness for an event. It is generally employed to seek Allah's protection from evil forces. The Arabic and the English languages serve symbolic purposes rather than informational.

Figure 5. Furniture showroom

Similarly, three languages (Urdu, English, and Pashto) are used in figure 6. The name of a local restaurant, Al-Madina Chargha House, is encoded as ' المدينہ چرغہ ہاؤس' in the Pashto language's Naskh style. The word chargha (چرغہ) signifies chicken in Pashto. As the title suggests, chargha (Chicken) is the principal ingredient in all of its recipes. For instance, چکن روسٹ، چکن بار بی کیو، کباب چکن کڑاہی چکن چیلی etc. The display of various food items further enhances the linguistic message. The primary language is Urdu, which is employed to give details such as the address and the delicacies that are available. Western Arabic numbers (0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9) provide contact information. Pashtuns use the Pashto language to identify themselves and it is the prevalent language in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa. As a result, in this multilingual sign, the term chargha (چرغہ) is included.

Figure 6. Local Pashtun's restaurant

Duplicating Multilingualism

It refers to multilingual writing that entails the complete translation of information into multiple languages. It is utilized for either affective or technical purposes, depending on the situation (2004). 'Homophonic signs' was the name used by Backhaus (2007) to describe this duplicating technique. These multilingual signs are intended for multilingual and monolingual readers. A monolingual can readily understand these signs because the entire content is translated into multiple languages. These signs represent equality among all of the cultural and linguistic groups that have been addressed.

Figures 7 and 8 illustrate the duplicating multilingualism by displaying the same information in two languages. The affective aspect of this strategy is served by Urdu and other local languages, whereas the technical aspect is expressed by the English language. Figure 7 is a bottom-up signboard for a book store (Shadab book center). Its title is translated as ' شاداب بک سنٹر' from English to the Urdu language with the same font size. It demonstrates the linguistic equality of both addressed languages.
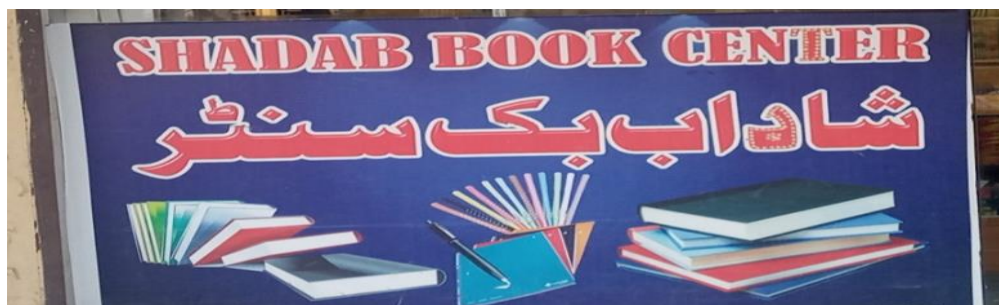
Figure 7. Book Center

Figure 8 reminds drivers to buckle up. It is a multilingual road sign that belongs to the top-down category. The purpose of this road sign is to ensure the safety of the general public. It motivates people to wear their seatbelts to avert collisions. Urdu translates this message as سیٹ بیلٹ باندھ لیجئے .

Figure 8. Road Sign

Transliterated Multilingualism

Transliteration is related to visually converting sentences and terms constructed in one orthography to their corresponding characters in another orthography. Transliterated multilingual signs are a style of writing that employs other language letters or alphabets by maintaining the original language pronunciation. In this strategy, sentences appear to be in one language yet incorporate lexical terms from another. There is a clear correlation between English lexical elements and multilingual signs in Pakistan. Pakistani multilingual signs overwhelmingly transliterate English lexical terms. Transliterated multilingual signs follow two distinct patterns: Englishized Pashto and Urduized English, with the latter being more prevalent. The term "Urduized English" alludes to an example wherein words or phrases are obviously in Urdu but stacked with English lexical terms.

Figures 9 and 10 are instances of the top-down transliterated multilingual signs. A top-down signboard of a community health center is an illustration of the transliteration technique. Transliterated words appeared in its title and description (see figure 9). Sign maker relied on alphabets of the Urdu language to write its title as کمیونٹی ہیلتھ سینٹر. It offers 24 hours emergency service. Community, and, health, center, emergency, and service are all English lexical

terms but written as سروس ایمرجنسی اور سینٹر، ہیلتھ، کمیونٹی in the Nastalique script of Urdu. Thus, these are examples of transliterated words.

Figure 9. Health Center

Figure 10 illustrates a vocational institute. It is a top-down road sign. Developers used transliterated words in the description and title of a road sign. The terms vocational, and, center and government as well as outsourcing in the description, are all English lexical terms but are written as ' اینڈ ٹیکنیکل گورنمنٹ سینٹر ووکیشنل'. Although these words have distinct Urdu equivalents, such as ورانہ پیشہ اور تکنیکی،حکومت, the linguistic landscape actors preferred English lexical terms to Urdu ones.

Figure 10. Technical And Vocational Institute

Question 2. In terms of the use of multilingual writing techniques, how do the top-down signs differ from the bottom-up signs?

Thongtong (2016) and Reh (2004) provided direction for this question's analysis. In order to answer this question, a statistical comparison was made between the frequencies of multilingual writing techniques employed in signs, including bottom-up and top-down. The researchers concentrated on photographs of 130 bottom-up and 70 top-down multilingual signs.

Percentages of multilingual writing techniques employed by the bottom-up and the top-down linguistic landscape actors are presented in table 1 and figure 11. The table and figure show that the top-down linguistic landscape actors primarily employed fragmentary and transliteration techniques. On the other hand, the bottom-up signs were dominated by transliteration and

complementary techniques. Reh (2004) described four techniques, and Thongtong (2016) added a fifth: transliterated multilingualism. When an additional technique is excluded, complementary and fragmentary multilingualism emerged as more prevalent than Reh's (2004) other two techniques. Top-down and bottom-up multilingual signs in the Nowshera district, Pakistan, used fragmentary and complementary multilingualism strategies. Reh (2004) investigated Lira's linguistic landscape.

As the fragmentary and complementary techniques were likewise dominant in the language landscape of Lira, Uganda, her findings are analogous to this study. Al-Athwary (2017) explored Yemen's linguistic landscape. In relation to Reh (2004), he analyzed the bottom-up and the top-down categories of signs. The research found no instances of multilingual overlapping and complementary techniques in Yemen's top-down signs, but these two strategies rarely appeared in the bottom-up signs. In the current study, complementary multilingualism is the second most noticeable technique in the bottom-up signs and the third most distinguished technique in the top-down signs, contrary to Al-Athwary's (2017) exploratory investigation. Even though overlapping multilingualism is rare in the top-down signs, 15.3% of bottom-up signs employed this technique.

According to the statistics, top-down linguistic landscape actors generally used duplicating and transliterated multilingualism. Overlapping, fragmentary, and complementary techniques, on the other hand, appeared more often in the bottom-up signs. Language variety is higher in the overlapping, fragmentary and complementary techniques than in the other two techniques. Duplicating multilingualism is frequently used by the top-down linguistic landscape actors because these signs reflect Pakistan's declared bilingual policy. As a result, the top-down signs have a higher percentage of duplicating technique than the other category. Top-down actors used English and Urdu, whereas bottom-up sign developers employed Urdu, Pashto, English, and Arabic. The percentages of duplicating, fragmentary, and complementary techniques are remarkably similar in both sign categories, but there is a considerable variation in the percentages of multilingual transliterated and overlapping signs. A higher proportion of the top-down than the bottom-up signs featured transliterated multilingualism. It demonstrates that one-quarter of the latter category utilized transliterated multilingualism, but almost half (40%) of top-down signs employed it.

Table 1. Various writing techniques in the bottom-up and the top-down signs

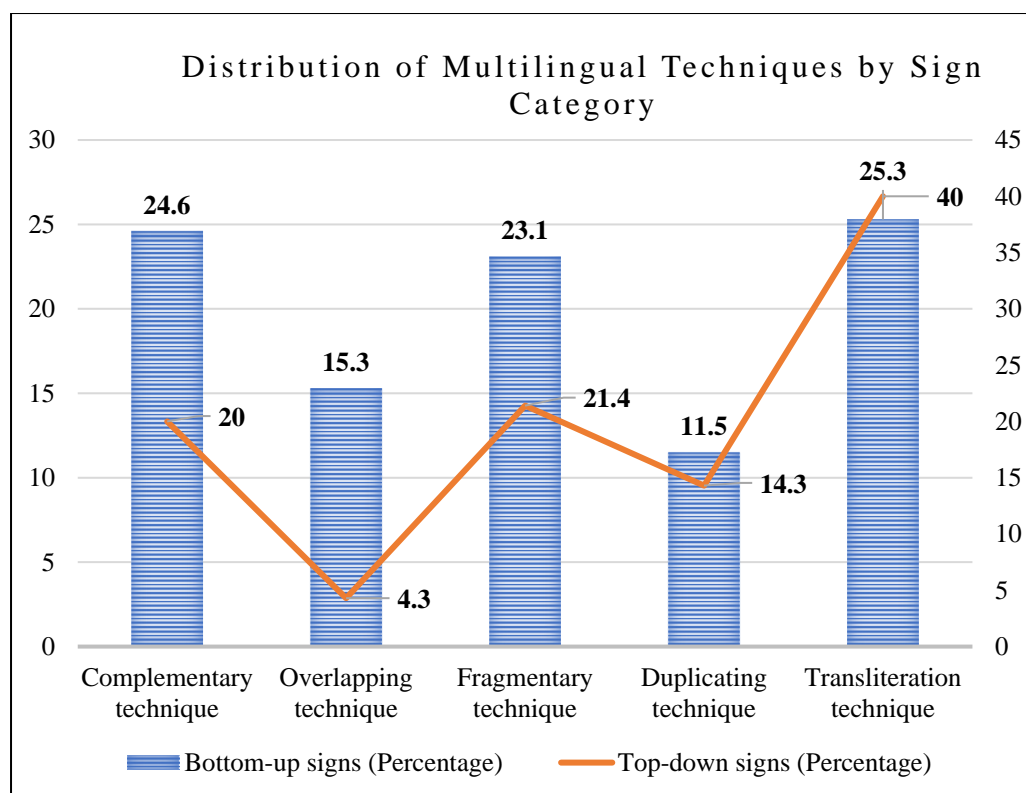| S. No.	Multilingual writing techniques	Bottom-up signs (Percentage)	Top-down signs (Percentage)
1.	Complementary technique	24.6	20
2.	Overlapping technique	15.3	4.3
3.	Fragmentary technique	23.1	21.4
4.	Duplicating technique	11.5	14.3
5.	Transliteration technique	25.3	40

Figure 11. Multilingual Writing Techniques in Both Categories Of Signs

DISCUSSION

The study explored various multilingual writing strategies that linguistic landscape actors employ in the top-down and the bottom-up multilingual signs. It compared the use to writing strategies in both categories of signs. Thongtong's (2016) and Reh's (2004) linguistic strategies were used to analyze the addressed question of this study.

The results show that the multilingual landscape of Nowshera employed five multilingual writing strategies. The transliteration strategy was more prevalent than the others. It appeared in a quarter (25%) of the bottom-up signs and almost half of the top-down signs (40%). Urduized English (e.g., 1,3, and 4-10 figures) occurred more frequently than Pashto that has been Englishized (e.g., figure 6). Pakistani multilingual signs overwhelmingly transliterate English lexical terms into Urdu. Therefore, the transliterated multilingualism illustrates the prominence and symbolic position of the English language in Pakistan. Additionally, complementary multilingualism appeared as the second most noticeable technique (see table 1 or figure 11). Its prevalence reflects the fact that Pakistan is a multilingual country with 59 minor and six major languages. The primary languages spoken in Pakistan are Urdu, Balochi, Seraiki, Pashto, Sindhi, and Punjabi.

Private signs, according to Huebner (2006), have a greater language diversity than government-sponsored signs. The bottom-up linguistic landscape actors employed Pashto, English, Urdu, and Arabic (see figures 1, 2, 5, and 6). On the contrary, the Urdu and English languages are employed by the top-down actors

(see figures 4 and 8). As a result, the current study's findings are quite similar to Huebner's (2006). In addition, English-Pashto and Urdu-Pashto combinations were only noticeable in the bottom-up signs; however, both categories of signs utilized the Urdu-English combination.

The linguistic landscape acts as a tool to reveal power relations among languages through their relative position. Urdu and others are additional languages, while the linguistic environment of Nowshera, Pakistan, supports English as a favored code. The bottom-up linguistic landscape actors selected the bottom of the sign for Urdu; on the contrary, English appeared in the topmost central position. English is widely used in Pakistan's multilingual landscape, although it is utilized rarely in social settings. It is often employed as the primary language because of its influence, attractiveness, and prominence. As a consequence, multilingualism in Pakistan's linguistic landscape was hampered by the English language.

Huebner (2006) and Kandel (2019) examined the linguistic landscape of Bangkok and Nepal respectively. They found that English appeared as the primary language than the official languages of Bangkok and Nepal. It influenced official languages in terms of phonology, lexis, and orthography. Similarly, this study examined language policies and their execution in the linguistic landscape of Pakistan.

Several documents addressed the language policy issue in Pakistan, including statements by government authorities in assembly and constitutions. In 1956, Pakistan's first constitution declared Bengali and Urdu to be the country's national languages. For the following 20 years, English would remain the official language, according to the document. Secondly, it said that the president would create a group to provide recommendations for the English language's substitution after 10 years. In the same way, the 1962 constitution described Bengali and Urdu as Pakistan's national languages. After the independence of Bangladesh (Pakistan's eastern part) in 1971, the 1973 constitution (third constitution) was passed, which removed Bengali as the national language. According to article 251 of the 1973 constitution, Urdu is Pakistan's national language, and it will get official status in the next 15 years. Its subclause authorizes the use of English until Urdu is officially recognized. However, these policies could not be implemented. English is considered a potent and influential language; on the contrary, Urdu is a sign of solidarity and the national language in Pakistan. Despite the language policy, English appeared overwhelmingly in both categories of multilingual signs in the Nowshera district, Pakistan. The authorities' indifference and reluctance also play a role together with increasing globalization to the present predicament in Pakistan.

Gorter and Cenoz (2006) and Andria et al., (2013) examined multilingual signs concerning languages policies of Frisian, Basque country, and Malaysia. Gorter and Cenoz's (2006) study revealed that the multilingual signs reflect official language policy in the Basque country. On the contrary, in the linguistic landscape of Frisian, language policy is not well executed. The billboard advertisements were investigated by Andria et al., (2013) in Malaysia. Despite being an official language and having advertisement legislation (1982), they

deduced that Bahasa Malaysia was not incorporated in all multilingual billboard advertisements in Malaysia. Similarly, this study highlighted that language policy is not enacted appropriately in Pakistan.

Additionally, the linguistic landscape displays different types of identities e.g. national, religious, and cultural. Linguistic landscape actors show their national identity by using either Urdu or transliterated versions of English lexical terms. Muslims are monotheists because they believe in the existence of only one Allah. They consider Allah to be the creator of heaven and earth. The Quran was revealed in Arabic by Allah, the Almighty. Therefore, the Arabic language carries symbolic value for Muslims. It is employed to show Muslim identity (religious identity). Hence, the sign makers used the Arabic language to make a variety of brief requests to Allah and express His attributes as self-existing and eternally living (see figures 1 and 5). For instance, ما شاء الله (Masha Allah), یا حی (Ya Hayyu) and یا قیوم (Ya Qayyum).

CONCLUSION

The language policy lays out guidelines for the use of languages in a variety of fields, such as media and education. This research looked into the linguistic landscape of Nowshera, Pakistan, concerning the language policy and its actual execution. It explored and compared multilingual signs in terms of using multilingual writing techniques, relative position, and the number of languages. As the study aimed to investigate multilingual signs, so the researchers ignored monolingual signs. As a result, purposive and convenience sampling was opted to collect multilingual signs from different areas of district Nowshera. Thongtong's (2016) and Reh's (2004) linguistic strategies were employed as the data analysis frameworks. Multilingual signs' photographs were analyzed using a mixed-method.

This study has three key limitations: limited data availability, insufficient funding, and time constraints. The results indicate that the linguistic landscape actors employed five multilingual writing techniques; English appeared as a preferred code in multilingual displays. According to the findings, both categories of signs primarily used transliteration as a writing technique. Despite Pakistan's 1973 constitution, the prevalence of the transliteration technique showed the exalted status of English. According to the plan, Urdu was supposed to be used as the official language in the next 15 years. The findings are important for both researchers and language policymakers because this study revealed the gap between language policy and its subsequent execution. The outcomes either call for a change in Pakistan's language policy or for signs to be designed in accordance with the policy. This research looked at language preferences and provided knowledge regarding societal multilingualism. Since a study cannot address all aspects of linguistic landscape studies, additional research is required. In public spaces, several languages are displayed. These languages can also be used in language learning classrooms. Therefore, future scholars may study landscapes as language learning inputs. Similarly, for a more in-depth analysis of the number and relative location of languages in public display, researchers can incorporate the voices of sign creators.

REFERENCES

Al-Athwary, A. A. H. (2014). Translating shop signs into English in Sana'a's streets: A linguistic   analysis. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 4(12), 140–156. Retrieved   from http://www.ijhssnet.com/journals/Vol_4_No_12_October_2014/17.pdf

Al-Athwary, A. A. H. (2017). English and Arabic inscriptions in the linguistic landscape of Yemen: A multilingual writing approach. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and   English Literature*, 6(4), 149–162. https://doi.org/10.7575/aiac.ijalel.v.6n.4p.149

Andria, A., Anuarudin, S., Heng, C. S., & Abdullah, A. N. (2013). Exploring multilingual practices in billboard advertisements in a linguistic landscape. *Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences   &   Humanities*, 21(2), 783–796.

Backhaus, P. (2006). Multilingualism in Tokyo: A look into the linguistic landscape. *International   Journal of Multilingualism*, 3(1), 52–66. https://doi.org/10.1080/14790710608668385

Backhaus, P. (2007). Linguistic landscapes: A comparative study of urban multilingualism in   Tokyo.   Clevedon,   Buffalo   &   Toronto: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Ben-Rafael, E. (2009). A sociological approach to the study of linguistic landscapes. In E. S. and   D. Gorter (Ed.), Linguistic landscape: Expanding the scenery (1ˢᵗ ed., pp. 40–54). New   York: Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203930960

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. In Durk Gorter (Ed.), Linguistic   landscape: A   new approach to multilingualism (1st ed., pp. 7–30). Clevedon, Buffalo & Toronto: Multilingual   Matters   Ltd. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781853599170-   002

Gorter, D. (2006). Introduction: The study of the linguistic landscape as a new approach to   multilingualism. In Durk Gorter (Ed.), Linguistic landscape: A new approach to   multilingualism (1st ed., pp. 1–6). Clevedon, Buffalo & Toronto: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Gorter, D, & Cenoz, J. (2006). Linguistic landscape and minority languages. In Durk Gorter (Ed.),   Linguistic landscape: A new approach to multilingualism (1ˢᵗ ed., pp. 67–80). Clevedon,   Buffalo   & Toronto: Multilingual   Matters   Ltd. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781853599170-   005

Huebner, T. (2006). Bangkok's linguistic landscapes: Environmental print, codemixing and   language change. In Durk Gorter (Ed.), Linguistic landscape: A new approach to   multilingualism (1st ed., pp. 31–51). Clevedon, Buffalo & Toronto: Multilingual Matters   Ltd. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781853599170-003

Hult, F. (2003). English on the streets of Sweden: An ecolinguistic view of two cities and a   language   policy. *Working Papers in Educational Linguistics (WPEL)*, 19(1), 43–63.

Jingjing, W. (2013). Linguistic landscape of China: A case study of shop signs in Beijing. *Studies   in   Literature   and   Language*,   6(1),   40– 47.https://doi.org/10.3968/j.sll.1923156320130601.1449

Kallen, J. (2009). Tourism and representation in the Irish linguistic landscape. In Elana Shohamy and Durk Gorter (Ed.), Linguistic landscape: Expanding the scenery (1st ed., pp. 270–283). New York: Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203930960

Kandel, B. (2019). Linguistic landscapes in multilingual Nepal: Urban context. *Journal of NELTA Gandaki*, 2, 12–28. https://doi.org/10.3126/jong.v2i0.26600

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

Manan, S. A., David, M. K., Dumanig, F. P., & Channa, L. A. (2017). The globalization of English in the Pakistan linguistic landscape. *World Englishes*, 36(4), 645–665. https://doi.org/10.1111/weng.12213

Moriarty, M. (2014). Languages in motion: Multilingualism and mobility in the linguistic landscape. *International Journal of Bilingualism*, 18(5), 457–463. https://doi.org/10.1177/1367006913484208

Nikolaou, A., & Shah, S. (2019). Linguistic landscape in Swat, Pakistan: A survey of shop signs. *Kashmir Journal of Language*, 22(2), 1–19. Retrieved from https://kjlr.pk/index.php/kjlr/article/view/7

Rahman, T. (2008). Language policy, multilingualism and language vitality in Pakistan. In A. S. and L. Borin (Ed.), Lesser-known languages of South Asia: Status and policies, case studies and applications of information technology (pp. 73–106). Berlin: De Gruyter Mouton. https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110197785.1.73

Reh, M. (2004). Multilingual writing: A reader-oriented typology — with examples from Lira municipality (Uganda). *International Journal of the Sociology of Language*, 2004(170), 1– 41. https://doi.org/10.1515/ijsl.2004.2004.170.1

Shahzad, S. K., Hussain, J., Sarwat, S., Nabi, A. G., & Ahmed, M. M. (2020). Linguistic landscape in promotion of language through traffic signboards: An introduction to the signs in Pakistani roads and highways. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 10(6), 287–297. https://doi.org/10.5539/ijel.v10n6p287

Shohamy, E., & Waksman, S. (2009). Linguistic landscape as an ecological arena: Modalities, meanings, negotiations, education. In E. S. and D. Gorter (Ed.), Linguistic landscape: Expanding the scenery (1st ed., pp. 313-331). New York: Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203930960

Thongtong, T. (2016). A linguistic landscape study of Signage on Nimmanhemin Road, A Lanna Chiang Mai Chill-Out Street. *MANUSYA: Journal of Humanities*, 19(22), 72–87. https://doi.org/10.1163/26659077-01903006

Wang, J.-J. (2015). Linguistic landscape on campus in Japan — A case study of signs in Kyushu University. *Intercultural Communication Studies*, 24(1), 123–144. Retrieved from https://web.uri.edu/iaics/files/08.Jing-Jing-Wang-.pdf