ЗАТВЕРДЖЕНО
Вченою радою ЗУІ
Протокол №2 від „28”лютого 2024 р.
Ф-КДМ-3

Міністерство освіти і науки України
Закарпатський угорський інститут ім. Ференца Ракоці ІІ

Кафедра філології

Реєстраційний №_____

Кваліфікаційна робота

МОВНИЙ ЛАНДШАФТ ЯК ІНСТРУМЕНТ ВИВЧЕННЯ ІНОЗЕМНОЇ МОВИ

ЦОНИНЕЦЬ ХРИСТИНИ ОЛЕКСІЇВНИ

Студентки 2-го курсу

Освітня програма Філологія (мова і література англійська)
Спеціальність 035 Філологія
Ступінь вищої освіти: магістр

Тема затверджена на засіданні кафедри
Протокол № 96 / 02.08.2023р.

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Робота захищена на оцінку _____, «___» _____ 2025 року

Протокол № _____ / 2025

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Рівень вищої освіти: магістр

Виконавець: студентка 2-го курсу

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Берегове
2025

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Ф-КДМ-3

Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine

Ferenc Rákóczi II Transcarpathian Hungarian College of Higher Education

Department of Philology

Qualifying Paper

LINGUISTIC LANDSCAPE AS A TOOL IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING

Level of higher education: Master’s degree

Presented by:

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Berehove
2025

CONTENTS

ЗМІСТ

INTRODUCTION

In contemporary urban environments, individuals are constantly surrounded by a multitude of written texts in public spaces, for instance, advertisements, signs, posters, nameplates, and public notices. Therefore, these textual elements constitute what is commonly referred to as the linguistic landscape. This omnipresent visual dimension of language not only reflects sociolinguistic dynamics but also serves as a potential source of informal learning. Each written sign within the linguistic landscape conveys information, contributing to the viewer's exposure to language in context. From this premise, a compelling question arises: may the written language displayed in public spaces, on advertisements, shop signs, or informational boards, serve as an effective tool for foreign language learning?

Previous studies have highlighted the pedagogical potential of the linguistic landscape (LL) in second language acquisition. Researchers (Cenoz & Gorter, 2008; Shohamy & Waksman, 2009; Rowland, 2012; Shang, 2017) argue that linguistic landscapes (LLs) can serve as valuable educational resources, promoting students' language awareness, enhancing literacy development, and supporting incidental language learning in authentic contexts. These findings suggest that the linguistic landscape holds considerable value for enriching language learning experiences. However, several important questions remain unanswered. What challenges might students and teachers face when incorporating linguistic landscapes into language learning? Does the linguistic landscape effectively motivate learners to engage with a foreign language? How applicable is this approach in smaller, multilingual communities such as Berehove, where Hungarian functions as a minority language? Furthermore, does the integration of LL-based tasks into the curriculum provide measurable benefits to learners? The *significance* of the current research is to try to answer to these questions by giving a general overview of linguistic landscapes in foreign language learning in Transcarpathia.

Several researchers have made significant contributions to the study of linguistic landscapes, particularly in the context of foreign language education. Landry and Bourhis (1997) were among the first to define LL as the presence or prominence of languages on public and commercial signs in a given area, laying the conceptual foundation for subsequent research. Building on this, Cosgrove (1984) and Satinská (2013) emphasized the visual and ideological dimensions of landscape, while also highlighting LL as a visual representation shaped by both official and private signage. Shohamy and Waksman (2009) argued that LL serves as a powerful educational tool, urging students to interpret the diverse meanings of language in public spaces. Rowland (2012), in turn, expanded on this by identifying LL's potential to develop literacy skills,

pragmatic competence, and interdisciplinary learning. Similarly, Cenoz and Gorter (2008), along with Shang (2017), underlined LL's role in providing authentic input, fostering language awareness, and supporting bilingual education. The classification of LL types and actors proposed by researchers such as Ben-Rafael et al. (2006) and Edelman and Gorter (2010), further enriched the field by distinguishing between top-down and bottom-up types of signs and by identifying the various representatives (actors) involved in creating and interpreting linguistic landscapes. Moreover, Scollon and Wong Scollon (2003) introduced the concept of geosemiotics with the main focus on the importance of spatial and symbolic meanings in the placement of signs. As the field evolved, increasing attention has been paid to multilingualism in LLs, which is seen as a reflection of sociopolitical dynamics and language policies (Cenoz & Gorter, 2006; Shohamy, 2015). It has led to a growing interest in schoolscapes, where researchers such as Gorter and Cenoz (2015), Biro (2016), and Chirimala (2018) have examined the educational implications of schoolscape for language acquisition. Overall, these studies offer a comprehensive framework for understanding the linguistic landscape as both a sociolinguistic phenomenon and a pedagogical resource in language learning.

The object of this research is to provide a comprehensive overview of linguistic landscapes. It examines how written language appears and functions in public spaces, reflecting social, cultural, and political dynamics.

The subject of the research is to examine the benefits and challenges of the linguistic landscape as a tool in foreign language learning at the Rakoczi Ferenc II Transcarpathian Hungarian College of Higher Education and its surroundings.

The aim of the research is to explore the linguistic landscape at the Rakoczi Ferenc II Transcarpathian Hungarian College of Higher Education and its surroundings, and to determine the effectiveness of the linguistic landscape in foreign language learning from the teachers' and students' perspectives.

The tasks of the master thesis are as follows:

- The analysis of theoretical foundations underlying the linguistic landscape and its connection to foreign language learning as well as bilingual education.
- The study of learners' perceptions of the influence of the linguistic landscape on foreign language learning.
- The study of teachers' perceptions of the effectiveness of the linguistic landscape in foreign language learning.
- To explore the linguistic landscape at Rakoczi Ferenc II Transcarpathian Hungarian College of Higher Education and its surroundings with the aim of determining to what extent it supports foreign language learning.

The theoretical value of this work lies in identifying the benefits and challenges of foreign language learning from the perspective of teachers and students. *The practical value* lies in identifying ways to improve the linguistic landscape at the Transcarpathian Hungarian Institute and its surroundings in order to make it more effective and engaging for foreign language learning.

The novelty of this research lies in addressing a gap in the study of the linguistic landscape (LL) in foreign language learning, particularly the challenges faced by both teachers and students when interacting with LL elements such as signs, public notices, etc. It also focuses on determining the impact of the LL on students' motivation to learn a foreign language. Moreover, the role of the LL as a tool for language learning in Berehove, a town with a high Hungarian population, and in the Transcarpathian region in general remains largely unexplored in academic research.

The master's thesis employed both theoretical and empirical research methods. The theoretical methods include analysis, comparison, generalization, and classification. Empirical methods, such as surveys, made it possible to study the linguistic landscape as a tool in language learning from the perspectives of teachers and students.

The *structure of this thesis* is made up of an introduction, three main parts, conclusions, resume, references, and appendices. Part 1 provides a theoretical and conceptual framework for the study by reviewing literature on the linguistic landscape, including its definitions, key functions, types, actors, and its relationship with multilingualism and language policy. Part 2 explores the relationship between the linguistic landscape and foreign language learning, presenting relevant studies that highlight LL's role in language acquisition, literacy development, pragmatic competence, and bilingual education. Part 3 presents the methodology, procedure, results, and discussion of the empirical research conducted at Rakoczi Ferenc II Transcarpathian Hungarian College of Higher Education and its surroundings, along with pedagogical implications for enhancing the role of LL in language learning.

PART 1

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF LINGUISTIC LANDSCAPE

Part 1 examines the theoretical framework that is the basis of the study of the linguistic landscape (LL). It begins by defining key concepts and tracing the evolution of LL as an interdisciplinary field of study, shaped by contributions from sociolinguistics, semiotics, cultural geography, and language policy. Moreover, this part explores how public signage functions both symbolically and informationally, reflecting and shaping social, cultural, and political dynamics in shared spaces. Furthermore, it outlines key theoretical perspectives that have influenced LL research, including the work of Landry and Bourchis (1997), Scollon and Scollon (2003), etc. The main focus is on the categorization of signage, the role of LL actors, and the interplay between top-down and bottom-up types of LL. The section also examines the impact of language policy on the visibility and status of languages in the public sphere. Finally, it addresses methodological and conceptual issues inherent in LL research.

1.1 Defining linguistic landscape

The linguistic landscape has emerged as a new area of research, attracting interest and collaboration from applied linguists, sociolinguists, sociologists, psychologists, cultural geographers, and more. These scholars share interest in LL as a site for the symbolic construction of public space (Ben-Rafael et al., 2006; Shohamy & Gorter, 2009). It represents the marking of objects, in both material and immaterial forms, with linguistic tokens. These tokens are analyzed based on what languages are being used, the prominence of the language in the LL, and the syntactic and semantic characteristics. The researchers all claim that these linguistic features are ultimately very much tied to the cultural, social, political and economic contexts.

To better appreciate the evolution of the field we should consider how definitions have changed and adapted over time. In some senses the concept of linguistic landscape serves both as a learning environment and an important source of input. The definitions of LL in early studies all tended to define LL very narrow in terms of the presence or prominence of languages on public and commercial signs in any given area (Landry & Bourhis, 1997), subsequent studies highlight the need to expand this definition.

Satinská (2013) defines linguistic landscape (LL) as a visual representation of language in public spaces, shaped by both official and commercial signage. Furthermore, she asserts that using English on signs signifies the globalization of public spaces and conveys a sense of prestige.

Some authors, like Itagi and Singh (2002), make a distinction between the terms “linguistic landscape” and “linguistic landscaping”. Backhaus (2007) elaborates on this distinction, stating that linguistic landscaping refers to the planning and execution of language-related actions on signs, while linguistic landscape refers to the outcome of these actions. Furthermore, more scholars, including Backhaus (2009), Barni and Bagna (2009), and Coulmas (2009), have also made a significant impact on linguistic landscaping.

Scollon and Scollon's (2003) study on geosemiotics that investigates how language and signs derive meaning from their physical placement in the world, provides a theoretical foundation for the LL field. The researchers argue that languages represented on signs indicate either the local community in which they are used (geopolitical location) or sociocultural associations, suggesting that English on a sign may represent both an English-speaking community as well as foreign influences.

Regarding semiotic space, Kress and van Leeuwen (2006) and Holsanova et al. (2006) discuss composition factors, including information value, salience, and framing. Information value pertains to the arrangement of elements within the triptych, with considerations such as left-right, top-bottom, and central-marginal (pragmatic distinction ideal and real or given and new) positioning. Salience is determined by visual cues, while framing indicates the relationship between elements within the image. Backhaus (2007), in turn, contributes significantly to LL scholarship with the first comprehensive monograph dedicated to the subject. He presents a framework that distinguishes the source of a sign, the interpreter of the sign, and the dynamics of languages and scripts in contact. Therefore, using language from John Berger (1982), Cosgrove (1984) defines landscape as a “method of viewing the external world” (Cosgrove, 1984, p. 46) and as “a visual ideology” (ibid. p 47). Both artwork and other uses of linear perspective demonstrated this. “The artist controls the scope of reality disclosed by framing it, defines the organization or composition, and hence the precise time, of the events portrayed, and determines - in both senses the “point of view” to be taken by the viewer” (Cosgrove, 1984, p. 48).

In conclusion, there is a noticeable transition of the concept of linguistic landscape that starts from an understanding of signage in the visible language of an environment to one that considers the public space itself as constantly dynamic and symbolic influenced by contexts that can be socially, culturally, politically, or economically constructed. This interdisciplinary research expands our understanding of the role language plays in society that goes beyond a mode of communicating and into an indication of identity, power, and globalization.

1.2. Classifying linguistic landscapes

The investigation of linguistic landscapes (LLs) has come to represent a highly active mode of research examining language use and semiotic functioning in public spaces. The primary focus of LL analysis is to categorize signs according to degrees of influence of institutions or the potential for individual agency and expression.

Figure 1.2.1. Classification of LL (Ben-Rafael, Shohamy, Amara and Trumper-Hecht, 2006)

Category	*Type of item*
Top-down	1. Public institutions: religious, governmental, municipal – cultural and educational, medical
	2. Public signs of general interest
	3. Public announcements
	4. Signs of street names
Bottom-up	1. Shop signs: e.g. clothing, food, jewellery
	2. Private business signs: offices, factories, agencies
	3. Private announcements: 'wanted' ads, sale or rentals of flats or cars

The classification (Fig. 1.2.1) includes the widely recognized distinction between "top-down" public signage, typically produced by official authorities, and "bottom-up" private signage, created by individuals or businesses. Researchers investigating LLs, such as Ben-Rafael Shohamy, Amara and Trumper-Hecht (2006) have identified significant distinctions between these signs, such as:

1. Public signs pertain to official government signs, like those indicating street names, reflecting a prescribed language policy. These signs include road signs, building names, and street names.
2. Private signs, on the other hand, encompass primarily commercial or informational signs found on shops and businesses. While these may also be influenced by language policy, they predominantly reflect individual preferences. Examples include shop signs, advertisements, and signs for private offices.

Many studies on linguistic landscapes (LL) generally adopt and reflect the distinction between official and non-official LL elements when analyzing multilingualism in public spaces. However, recent research has questioned this binary approach, pointing to the increasingly complex interplay between top-down and bottom-up forces in certain contexts. Kallen (2010)

refines the definition of top-down influences by referring to them as “civic authorities,” in order to highlight internal differences within the category. Similarly, Lou (2012, p. 46) observes that the boundaries between official and top-down signs, and unofficial and bottom-up ones, have become increasingly unclear, with state influence often merging with corporate interests.

The notion of bottom-up signage is also complicated. As Pavlenko (2009, p. 250) explains, large multinational companies might design signage to project a globally recognizable identity (i.e., global signs), local businesses may be required to adhere to local regulations, and individuals may make language choices influenced by both their own linguistic abilities and those of their target audience.

Contemporary studies advocate for incorporating additional elements such as images, sounds, drawings, and movement, aligning with modern theories of multimodality (Shohamy, 2011). Moreover, since Spolsky and Cooper's (1991) examination of LL in 1991, street signs have played a significant role in scholarly research and remain a crucial area of investigation (Amos, 2015). However, the scope of analysis has expanded considerably, encompassing a wide array of objects found in public spaces. These artifacts now include various items such as T-shirts (Coupland, 2010), stamp machines (Van Mensel and Darquennes, 2012), jars of honey (Blackwood and Tufi, 2012), football banners (Siebetcheu, 2016), postcards (Jaworski, 2010), and tattoos (Peck and Stroud, 2015). Previous LL studies tended to concentrate on permanent rather than transient elements. Kallen (2010) and Seba (2010), both featured in Jaworski and Thurlow’s (2010) *Semiotic Landscapes: Language, Image, Space,* were among the first to highlight the potential of ephemeral signs in LL research, offering insights into questions explored by researchers in this field. Signs with varying degrees of permanence, notably graffiti, have emerged as significant subjects in LL research, with Hanauer (2012) and Pennycook (2010) examining different aspects of this phenomenon. In addition, according to Dailey et al. (2005), LL also encompasses a wide array of elements such as advertisements received at home, the languages encountered while strolling through one's neighborhood, the languages heard on television, and the language used by educators in the classroom.

1.3. The characteristics of linguistic landscape

There is a growing interest in linguistic landscape studies, as evidenced by numerous research projects and publications. LL is examined from different perspectives, and incorporates many features discussed below.

Landry and Bourhis (1977) argue that the linguistic landscape (LL) has 2 functions: informational and symbolic, reflecting the relative influence and status of linguistic groups within a specific area. In terms of their informational function, signs act as markers for the

territory of a language community, clearly defining language boundaries in relation to other language groups. Consequently, the frequency positioning of a group's language on public signs within territory indicates the availability of services in that language. In contrast, symbolic function, in bilingual or multilingual environments, shows that the predominant use of a language on commercial and governmental signs reflects its status and importance relative to other languages. Thus, it signifies the vitality of the language, indicating its strength or weakness compared to language groups. Landry's and Bourhis (1997), for example, focus on Canada highlights LL's role in maintaining languages within bilingual settings, using the framework of ethnolinguistic vitality research. On the contrary, Spolsky and Cooper (1991), in their study on Jerusalem, underscore the impact of political systems on LL. Although both approaches offer valuable insights, they have their limitations, necessitating further expansion. While the Landry-Bourhis (1997) approach views LL as a fixed context for sociolinguistic processes, neglecting its dynamic nature, the Cooper-Spolsky (1991) direct their approach on the aspects of change but at the same time fails to fully define the complexity of LL and its diverse contributors. Although both approaches recognize LL's significance for study and research, they only provide a partial understanding of its broader importance.

Regarding the formation of linguistic landscape (LL), Ben-Rafael et al. (2006) critique Landry and Bourhis (1997) for their view of LL as a static context of sociolinguistic processes, neglecting its dynamic nature and the factors influencing it. Ben-Rafael et al. (2006) focus on LL actors who actively participate in shaping the public space by either commissioning or creating LL elements based on their preferences, choices, or policies. These actors encompass a diverse range, including public institutions, associations, firms, and individuals from various backgrounds.

In terms of LL actors, Edelman and Gorter (2010) identify five categories involved in both constructing and perceiving LL:

1. businesses that install signs,
2. individuals responsible for sign design and production,
3. private individuals who post signs for events,
4. authorities contributing to LL,
5. passers-by, who observe signs, whether consciously or unconsciously.

Considering LL primarily consists of signs, it's crucial to define a sign, its rules and discuss a sign as a unit of analysis during data collection.

There is significant interest in signs within the emerging literature on semiotics. However, the precise definition of the term 'sign' remains somewhat ambiguous. As noted by Backhaus (2007), the term sign carries two potentially relevant meanings in this field (pp. 4–5). Firstly, it refers to

a fundamental concept in semiotics - any meaningful unit interpreted as representing something beyond itself.

Secondly, it denotes “an inscribed surface displayed in public space to convey a message” (Backhaus, 2007, p. 5). Signs in this second sense are also signs in the first sense, since they too signify something other than themselves. This duality can be both advantageous and limiting, as signs in the second sense constitute a small subset of those in the first.

For instance, Scollon and Wong Scollon (2003) occasionally adopt a broad perspective on their subject geosemiotics, that is defined as the study of the systems of meaning through which language is situated in the material world. This encompasses not only the arrangement of words on the page you are currently reading but also the positioning of the book in your hands and your location as you read it (ibid. p. 2). On the contrary, at other times, they appear to focus exclusively on signs as physical objects: Signs are designed by sign makers, produced in their workshops, transported to appropriate locations, and finally installed by workers to become signs in place. (Scollon and Wong Scollon, 2003, p. l)

Furthermore, Scollon and Wong Scollon (2003) highlight three types of signs: icons, images and indexes. Icons resemble objects, indexes point to or are attached to objects, and symbols have arbitrary or conventional associations with objects.

Let us consider them in more detail.

Icons

Figure 1.3.1. Icon

The signs on the restroom door in the image tell us, through a combination of color, text, and pictorial icons, who the intended users of the facilities are. The red sign uses an iconic image of a woman alongside the same „WC” text, indicating that this particular toilet is designated for women. The figure of the woman is an icon - it looks like the figure it represents. The next, blue,

sign contains an image of a person in a wheelchair above the word „DISABLED.” This image directly represents a person using a wheelchair, while the accompanying word is symbolic.

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Figure 1.3.2. Index

The sign in this image also uses a combination of icons, indexes, and symbols to convey a clear directional message. The words „ВХІД З ДВОРУ” (Ukrainian) and „BEJÁRAT AZ UDVARBÓL” (Hungarian) both mean „Entrance from the courtyard.” These are symbolic signs - they do not resemble an entrance but are understood by those who know the language.

The wheelchair icon is an iconic sign, representing accessibility for people with physical disabilities. It resembles what it stands for - a person in a wheelchair. The black arrow pointing left is an indexical sign. It does not resemble a direction in itself, but it points toward where the accessible entrance can be found, namely to the left. Altogether, the sign tells us that the accessible entrance is located to the left, and must be reached via the courtyard.

Symbols

Symbols are signs which are based on convention or agreement, not physical resemblance to their referents.

Figure 1.3.3. Symbols

The text „ADVOKAT POPOVYCH” and the initials „AP” are linguistic symbols. The letters do not resemble a lawyer or law - they are abstract signs understood through cultural convention (knowing the Latin or Cyrillic alphabets and associated meanings). The same with the names in Cyrillic – „ПОПОВИЧ ШАНДОР ОЛЕКСАНДРОВИЧ.”Their meanings are known only to those familiar with the Ukrainian language and naming conventions. The font style and visual layout (modern serif, centered composition) convey professionalism and authority - again, symbolic associations learned culturally.

On the other hand, Cenoz and Gorter (2006) opted to count all visible signs, including shop fronts, street signs, and posters, as individual units. In contrast, Backhaus (2007) only counted signs in Tokyo containing more than one language. He broadly defined a sign as any written text within a defined space, encompassing everything from small stickers to large commercial billboards. To summarize, both studies exclude moving signs like bus advertisements, text on T-shirts, or discarded wrappers. Seba (2010) argues that while fixed signage is undoubtedly significant, it should be viewed and analyzed as a subset of all public texts, which also includes mobile or 'non-fixed' public texts.

Furthermore, Spolsky and Cooper (1991, pp. 81-84) outline three rules regarding language signage, categorized into different types based on their focus.

The first rule (referred to as the ‘sign-writer’s skill’ condition) stipulates that signs should be written in a language the writer is proficient in. This is deemed a necessary graded condition, emphasizing the importance of the writer's language proficiency. The second rule (known as the ‘presumed reader’ condition) suggests that signs should be written in the language(s) that the intended readers are expected to understand. This condition is typical but not mandatory, allowing for consideration of readers with varying levels of proficiency. This rule can be also described as informative with an economic motivation. The third rule (termed the ‘symbolic value’ condition) recommends writing signs in one's own language or a language with which the writer wishes to be associated. This condition is also considered typical but not obligatory, reflecting a more symbolic and socio-political motivation related to language loyalty. Spolsky and Cooper (1991) assert that while rules 2 and 3 may sometimes conflict, rule 1 remains a necessary condition. It would be pertinent to examine whether these rules hold true across different contexts, as there are instances where the symbolic value of a language may outweigh the necessity for language proficiency as outlined in rule 1.

In addition to the individuals and signs involved in shaping and perceiving the linguistic landscape (LL), the researchers such as Bourdieu (1983, 1991), Boudon (1990, 2003), Ben-Rafael (2009), etc. outline principles that contribute to LL structuration:

1. Presentation of self involves actors expressing their identities through language choices. Signs in LL compete for attention, prompting actors to present favorable images to showcase their uniqueness. This principle suggests that prestigious languages are likely to be present in the LL. (Ben-Rafael, 2009, pp. 47-48). Moreover, from the subjectivist perspective, advocated by Goffman (1963), the main focus is on analyzing social action based on individuals' perceptions of their environment and concerns about self-presentation. In relation to linguistic landscapes (LL), this perspective examines how the public perceives and responds to LL elements. Social psychology studies have shown that individuals may interpret documented facts differently based on their values, beliefs, and cognitive biases (Myers, 1993). Consequently, different people or groups react differently to LL efforts to attract attention. As the density and variety of LL items increase, perceptions of LL become more diverse, affecting the satisfaction or dissatisfaction of passers-by. So, this subjective dimension influences LL structure when LL actors aim to demonstrate their uniqueness compared to competitors in attracting the public's attention.

2. Good reasons suggest that languages positively valued by the public are more likely to be used in the LL. In other words, this principle places less focus on power and more on interest (Boudon, 2003; Coleman & Fararo, 1992). It emphasizes rational considerations and the pursuit of attainable goals by actors. In the context of linguistic landscapes (LL) in urban areas, this perspective highlights the intense competition among actors to attract the attention of passers-by, which imposes limitations on their actions. Actors must consider the sensibilities, values, and tastes of the public they're trying to reach, often emphasizing widely shared cultural orientations like comfort, luxury, or prestige. In today's consumerist culture, LL items must anticipate the cost-and-benefit considerations of clients. Given the commercial nature of public spaces, such considerations significantly influence LL structure. In the context of overproduction, actors may present themselves as guides to help confused clients navigate their choices.

3. Power relations refer to actors' ability to enforce behavior patterns on others. The Bourdieu (1991) tradition argues that social reality primarily consists of power dynamics between different groups within social spaces (fields). These spaces have their own dynamics and influence each other. In linguistic landscapes (LLs), this means that stronger parties can impose restrictions on the use of language resources by weaker actors. This approach is relevant to LL studies because it distinguishes between top-down flows of LL items, originating from public bodies, and bottom-up flows. The top-down flow, driven by powerful actors like politicians and public servants, may exert control over the bottom-up flow. Exploring the role of power in LL involves comparing these two flows to see how much autonomy actors in the bottom-up flow maintain. In conclusion, this principle implies that languages of dominant groups are more prevalent in the LL.

4. Collective identity highlights its significance in an era characterized by globalization and multiculturalism. It involves actors asserting their identities, demonstrating commitment to specific groups within the public. This is evident in signs of food stores appealing to potential clients based on shared fellowship. In multicultural societies, this principle reflects regional, ethnic, or religious identities distinct from the mainstream. It is hypothesized that languages of minority groups are present in LL according to this principle. Moreover, analyzing the presence of collective identity in LL should reveal the strength of societal divisions. Generally, in multicultural settings, LLs are expected to include items that express these particularistic identities alongside symbols of societal solidarity.

Semiotic LL

The great contribution to the area of semiotic linguistic landscape was made by Jaworski and Thurlow (2010), who describe the linguistic landscape (LL) as a semiotic landscape to emphasize the ways in which written discourse interacts with other semiotic aspects, such as visual imagery, nonverbal communication, architecture, and the built environment. Their research highlights the role of language as a crucial component in the creation and interpretation of place. However, the term semiotic landscape may be seen as somewhat misleading, since every landscape is inherently semiotic. In fact, its meaning is always constructed and interpreted through sociocultural processes.

The semiotic landscape is outlined as, in the most general sense, any (public) space with visible inscription, created through intentional human intervention and meaning making. This is in accordance with Scollon and Wong Scollon (2003), who draw a qualified distinction between semiotic and non-semiotic spaces. However, writing and image, in a broad sense, are at the analytical core of most of the book, as is clear from its thematic and empirical breadth.

Moreover, Jaworski and Thurlow (2010) claim that the mediated depictions of space in literature and art are not the only ways that landscape can be seen. In addition to our practical uses of the physical environment such as nature and territory, aesthetic judgments, memory and myth, for example by drawing on religious beliefs and references etc., it is a broader concept that pertains to how we view and interpret space in ways that are contingent on geographical, social, economic, legal, cultural, and emotional circumstances. These factors are still present today and are consistently reproduced in, for instance, modern tourist landscapes (Cosgrove, 2008; Crouch, 1999; Osborne, 2000).

Another aspect the research showed that images of place are vital for diasporic communities in maintaining their national or ethnic identity, expressing longing and nostalgia. Place helps create a “collective memory” of the diaspora (Harvey, 1989). Garrett et al. (2005) note that images of home can connect new communities to their origins, linking past and present.

Immigrant communities integrate these images into their daily lives, transforming urban spaces of their homeland through signage in shops, restaurants, and other institutions, positioning themselves between their ancestors and host communities. Immigrant languages, national flags, colors, emblems, decor, and architectural details (e.g., gates marking the entrance to "Chinatowns" in European and North American cities) distinguish these communities from others and enable them to claim these urban spaces as their own, rendering the foreign familiar and present.

However, leaving visible traces of human activity and social interaction in space is not solely the prerogative of migrant communities. The transformation of space into place, or the creation of a sense of place, is a fundamental human need and the inevitable result of various interactions that include the manipulation of nature through agriculture, architecture, and landscape design, as well as symbolically through activities such as image creation, narrative construction, and memorization. Places thus become knowable both sensuously and intellectually (Entrikin, 1991). They are also understood discursively and only make sense within discourse. Speech, writing, and other semiotic codes found in space index particular localities, orienting us to different levels of territorial and social inequality, including identity claims, power relations, and their contestation (Johnstone, 2004).

1.3.1. Factors contributing to the diversity of linguistic landscapes

The study of multilingualism in linguistic landscapes (LL) offers a rich avenue to understand how language use, identity, power, and space interact wiith each other. Multilingualism in LL has been adopted to investigate LLs in many different sociopolitical contexts; these studies have shown that the presence and visibility of languages in public spaces are influenced not only by demographic realities but also by institutional policies, historical legacies, and symbolic considerations.

Regarding LL, multilingualism can be discussed in different ways. Barney and Bagna (2008) examine several Italian cities and show a diversity of languages linked to immigration and other contextual circumstances. The relationship they find is not determined by a direct, unambiguous causal relationship, and they emphasize that a number of factors can be considered in this regard. More specifically, various data confirm that there is no direct relationship between the presence of a language among the population of a given territory, its vitality and visibility. This relationship depends on numerous linguistic, extralinguistic and contextual factors. Jeffrey L. Kallen (2009) examines multilingualism in L using the example of a comparison of Japan and Ireland, and he also seek to uncover the social and cultural determinants of linguistic variation. Multilingualism, in his understanding, concerns not only the shared use of different languages in

writing, but also the semiotic functioning of signage. The author's argument is that signage in the visual channel opens up ways to go beyond the literal message of the sign to evoke hidden meanings through means and interlingual expressions. Moreover, he argues that this approach allows for an appreciation of the ways in which different language communities use spoken language (SL) differently to address the same issues of globalization. SL itself is almost limitless in its flexibility and highly complex in its frames of reference. Both Barney & Bagna (2008) and Kallen (2009) assess the importance of English as the language of globalization in the modern era. This importance goes far beyond the influence of other circumstances; several other works before this volume, which discuss other aspects of SL, still find it necessary to signal the presence of English. it is also mentioned that the widespread use of English in non-English-speaking societies, regardless of immigration or the presence of English speakers, and rather relate it to the influx of tourists or the current status of the language in the eyes of locals.

The authors characterize this process as the "top-down" element of LL in a way which signals that these elements deliver messages, and are configured around authority. For example, Waksman and Shohamy (2009) use LL components used by the Tel Aviv-Yafo Municipality during its one-hundredth "birthday" (centennial), to highlight LL elements that were created and used in public spaces such as signs, poems, and photographs in walls and sidewalks, squares, and billboards, which references Zionist national ideology, as well as Jewish-Israeli identity. However, those messages were occasionally counter responses, for example in graffiti form within urban spaces and online commentary. The results suggested that LL policies, particularly around city "birthdays," can change urban identity. The re-designed linguistic landscape, produced chiefly to reaffirm official discourse of public language, sometimes distinguishes between people and groups brought into discussion with the official regime of public language. Whereas that official regime quickly settles the role of that official language on that linguistic landscape, the performative and clearly gendered nature of the official language also opens to creating linguistic landscapes alternative public commentary and counter-publics.

In addition, Jia Jackie Lou (2007) offers a new perspective on language policy within linguistic landscapes by examining Washington, DC's Chinatown. She argues that the value assigned to different varieties of Chinese in the space is not just based on the varieties' actual, documented use, but rather how major actors within the space retell the story of what Chinatown is, and the story often detaches the areas identity from its heritage as an immigrant neighborhood. Language policy in this sense extends beyond the consideration of the words and looks at the visual forms associated with them, e.g., signs. The neighborhood intends to create a bilingual neighborhood through decisions made by Chinese American business leaders and made through collaboration with local governmental agencies - notable Chinese American planning decisions,

such decisions are the public facing bilingual signage. The planners would argue that the bilingual signage is a major win of the neighborhood because it sustains some cultural significance, a story that is respected enough even by non-Chinese businesses who operate in the area. However, a semiotic analysis of the bilingual signs would seemingly oppose this argument. Though Chinese characters appear in the space, they are simply out numbered as English corporate branding and logos overshadow that use and underscore that Chinese, though it is in relative abundance, is losing its value and symbolic power. Consequently, Lou contends that if Chinese is present in the landscape, it can achieve some primitive communicative objectives etc., but its overall economic worth is negligible.

Marten (2008) turns the discussion to multilingual cities in Latvia, which host Russian, a potent, politically loaded minority language, for possible minority language loss and marginalization. The Latvian majority has been proactive about treating Russian as problematic for cultural and historical reasons, whereas English is gaining significant ground as the new foreign language in the marketplace and in positions of modernity, where businesses use it to suggest "newness" and a Western inflection. Marten consulted with the Latvian government and introduced the idea of "legal hypercorrection" where the new language legislation (although it was amended) is applied more seriously and with more scrutiny than what it replaces as a way to elevate the status (and presumable reelevate) the national languages of Latvian, Estonian, and Lithuanian back into the prestigious positions formerly held by Russian languages. Although the Russians can be readily found speaking their language in their lives on a daily basis, turning the language into an official loser means the connecting lost prestige, first and foremost, was linked to prestige in most contexts of public life. The unremarking changes that sever visible languages from speaking languages suggest that what we encounter on public request simply testified an engagement with riddled realities.

In contrast, Pavlenko (2008) brings us to Kiev, Ukraine, where the reality is very different. While there are official attempts in Ukraine to categorize Russian as a foreign language and push for the exclusive use of Ukrainian, Russian remains prevalent and widely spoken. She relates the ongoing prevalence of Russian to Ukrainian Russians perceiving the language still carries cultural and social prestige despite a persistent derussification pushed by the state. Pavlenko (2008) also makes comparisons between this picture and the successful transition to Ukrainian in Lviv, and questions why the language policy was successful in that context while it was not effective in the region of Ukraine where Russian is still widely spoken. The larger sociolinguistic history indicates that any changes in language environments do not necessarily and always align with use of that language, and that language landscapes are often subject to the pressures of politics. In situations where the use of a language is not in keeping with the official

language policy for that area, diglossia may occur, where one language was negotiated to be the official, public language, but the other language continues to be used in commerce, private signage, and everyday communication. Top-down actors certainly play a role in shaping the linguistic landscape (LL), but they are not the only actors. Bottom-up actors - those who communicate directly with the public on behalf of their organization to capture attention - have their own motives and rationale for how they act.

Both Leeman and Modan (2009) take a larger view by suggesting that to truly understand urban linguistic landscapes, we also need to think about the organization of cities and how they are re-organized. With their historically and spatially located approach, they examine the subsequent relationship between written language on signs, the physical configurations of the built environment and the larger urban design. Drawing from areas such as the study of the city itself, the sociology of space and place, and tourism studies, they conceptualize what they refer to as a symbolic economy when language is produced and used as an instrument of branding, which commodifies both culture and place. The written language for retailers in dis-invested downtown public spaces and stylized ethnic neighborhoods, such as a restaurant on a revitalized street, can be a visual representation of ethnicity that binds space to a product or experience. By changing the way signs physically represent neighborhoods, entire neighborhoods are made marketable identities through their signs.

Finally, in the realm of digital LL, Malinowski (2006) occupies the space of technology-themed digital linguistics. He studies new visualization technologies and how they are changing linguistic landscapes. The researcher uses the example of Seoul, South Korea to show how a digital map turns linguistic landscapes into a markets, using street-view maps as a case study as they shape and mediate how we engage of cities. In this way, the street-view map mediates when and where we produce the linguistic landscape in the present time. Street-view maps give virtual tourists and language learners around the world access to visual texts that are situated within the context of real cities, but, along with several others, Malinowski's (2006) concern is that the digital representation into a flat and simplified phenomenon (and making signage into decontextualized visual products) strips places of their lived and dynamic complexities. Malinowskis (2006) conclusion emphasize the responsibility of users to think critically about how linguistic landscapes are represented digitally and the implications of visual tools are that they are often reconfiguring language into a commodified and packaged form.

1.4. The impact of language policy on linguistic landscape

Language policy plays a crucial role in shaping the linguistic landscape (LL) of a region, both symbolically and practically. The visibility of languages in public signage reflects not only

linguistic diversity but also the sociopolitical priorities embedded within institutional language management. Typically, these policies are comprehensive, extending to the use of languages in media and education. As highlighted by Landry and Bourhis (1997), the usage of various languages on signs in bilingual or multilingual regions carries significant symbolic weight.

The selection of place names, whether in a minority language or the dominant state language, often sparks linguistic conflicts in certain regions (Hicks, 2002). Instances of activists painting over signs displaying incorrect names are common in many minority regions of Europe. This overt action communicates to passers-by the ongoing struggle for language rights and territorial claims. Conflicts may not only revolve around the choice of place names but also the visibility and positioning of languages on signs.

Governmental language policies primarily manifest in official signage but can also influence commercial and unofficial signs. For instance, in Catalonia, there exists a legal requirement for the presence of Catalan language on all public and private signs. The diversity of languages on signs not only mirrors their usage but also reflects their power and status.

Research by Cenoz and Gorter (2006) illustrates the tangible impact of robust language policies, such as those pertaining to Basque, on the linguistic landscape. In comparison, Frisian, lacking such policies, exhibits minimal presence on signs despite having a higher percentage of fluent speakers than Basque. This disparity underscores the effectiveness of language policies in promoting the usage of Basque on both public and private signs, despite its greater prominence in official signage.

Shohamy (2015) provides a comprehensive review of how LL research contributes to the field of language policy. She highlights the usefulness of LLs in language revitalization efforts, in documenting multilingual environments, in interpreting the significance of multimodal public symbols, and in evaluating locally shaped policies and how they are challenged. A central point Shohamy (2015) makes is the important role LLs can serve in raising public awareness about language policies and fostering activism among those who experience their effects.

Above all, Francis M. Hult (2018) has devoted a large section of his work to language policy, planning and the linguistic landscape. In his work, he conducts a detailed analysis of the direct and indirect connections between language policy and the linguistic landscape, namely, language signage. The author argues that the analysis of the ways in which language is visually used in public space allows the researcher to interpret LL on the basis of these factors, including the possible socio-political tensions between them. For example, Shohami (2006, p. 110) notes, “the presence or absence of certain linguistic elements, reflected in certain languages in certain ways, contains direct and indirect messages about the centrality and marginality of certain languages in society.”

Hult (2018) noted that in LMP, too, a distinction is sometimes made between "top-down" and "bottom-up" methods, as the distinction between the two is not always obvious. "Is a laser-printed sign placed by a railway stationmaster", because it was created by one person, or is it "top-down", because it was created by a person in his capacity as a railway agent? When does a professionally commissioned commercial sign become top-down?" (p. 334)

Nevertheless, the top-down/bottom-up distinction indicates how language learning (LL) is related to Spolski's (2004, p. 5) tripartite characterization of language policy:

- language practices (habitual language choices and norms of interaction),
- language beliefs or ideology (situational values about languages),
- language management (deliberate attempts to manipulate language practices or beliefs).

Language policy and planning (LPP) can directly and explicitly relate to LL when policies and planning specifically aim to manage public language use (Backhaus, 2009). The connection can also be indirect, for example when ideologies can be traced from general language policy to the configuration of language use on signage, even when the policy is not directly aimed at speech as such, or when the use of visual language in speech as such becomes habitual to the point that norms become de facto policies (Shohamy, 2006, pp. 110–114). Let us dwell on them in detail. The obvious connection between language policy and planning (LPP) and language learning (LL) emerges in situations where visual language use in public spaces is deliberately regulated. Research in these settings has examined how people either adhere to or resist against policies designed to influence language use (Hepford, 2017; Zabrodskaja, 2014), how people perceive explicit policy and planning for language technologies (Draper & Prasertsri, 2013), and the use of language technologies to manage sense of place (Vigers, 2013). Language landscape regulations can be very detailed and specific. Manan et al. (2015, p. 35), for example, present a policy governing signage and advertising in the city of Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia: (1) The national language must be used for all advertising, whether alone or in conjunction with any other language; (2) If the national language is used with any other language in an advertisement, the words in the national language must be: (a) 30% larger than the size of the other language; (b) clearly placed; and (c) grammatically correct; (3) any person who fails to comply with paragraph (1) or (2) shall be guilty of an offence and shall be liable on conviction to a fine not exceeding 2,000 ringgit (about £400) or to imprisonment for a term not exceeding one year, or to both. Such policies aim to maintain coherence in linguistic landscapes by attempting to regulate the linguistic behavior of those who create and display signs, and there is often enforcement (Backhaus, 2009). For example, in Kuala Lumpur, authorities enforce the rules, and punitive measures resulting from violations are often reported in the media (Manan et al., 2015, pp. 35–

36). Lowe's operates a centralized oversight process, whereby signs created by individual store managers are first officially translated and then approved by a review board before they can be displayed in the store (Hepford, 2017, p. 655). The Canadian province of Quebec, and the city of Montreal in particular, have been well known since the 1970s for their detailed laws regulating the use of language in public places (Backhaus, 2009). Compliance with these laws is closely monitored by the Quebec Bureau of the French Language, which conducts periodic investigations and addresses public complaints.

Despite clear and detailed signage policies and official attempts to enforce them, those living in linguistic landscapes often find creative ways to undermine or resist these policies. Such resistance is common when official policies do not respond to local sociolinguistic circumstances and communicative needs (Schiffman, 1996, p. 49). It also demonstrates the important role of individual agency in the construction of linguistic lines, which are ultimately a collection of diverse values and experiences expressed visually (Jaworski & Yeung, 2010, p. 56). Lamarre (2014) documents resistance in the form of creative wordplay, which she calls “bilingual winks,” in Montreal signage. A store name such as “T & biscuits” can be read as either French or English depending on the viewer’s mood, and the name of a shoe store, Chouchou, has a French feel while cleverly using the English word “shoe” (Lamarre, 2014, p. 140). Such signage allows store owners to playfully circumvent language facilitation (LL) policies regarding the preference for French in ways that are formally compliant and not aggressively political (Lamarre, 2014, p. 142). Francis notes that Resistance can also take the form of ignoring LL policies. Hepford (2017, p. 662) found that as many as 51.5% of the signage in one Lowe's store did not comply with the company's LL policy, which she attributes to managers subverting the policy when it did not match the linguistic repertoire of the local community. More broadly, she notes that a higher proportion of signage was bilingual in a store located in an ethnically diverse community than in a store in a predominantly white neighborhood.

The author argues that the development of a clear policy can be effective in managing linguistic behavior, as Gorter, Ayestaran, and Senoz (2012) show in their study of Donostia-San Sebastián in the Basque Autonomous Community of Spain, where increased attention to Basque in official policies appears to have led to greater visibility of the Basque language.

Another issue considering LL is how people feel about LPP about LLs. In the study “LL in Tallinn”, Zabrodskaja (2014) surveyed philology students at Tallinn University about their attitudes towards multilingual signage and also examined policies regarding LL practices. She found that the attitudes of Estonian-speaking students coincided with the national policy in favor of Estonian, as they generally had negative attitudes towards multilingual signage and, in particular, towards Russian or Russian-Estonian signage, while Russian-Estonian bilingual

students had positive attitudes towards multilingual signage, which they considered creative and useful for reaching a wider audience (Zabrodskaja, 2014, p. 127). Sloboda et al. (2010) investigated LL policies in the Czech Republic, Hungary and Wales in terms of how local residents perceive its implementation. Working in two stages, they began by collecting data on the broadcasters themselves through photographs and on their political context through political documents and reports, online sources and media texts, and then conducted observations in the three cities and interviews with residents, civil servants and visitors (Sloboda et al., 2010, p. 98).

By exploring different data sources, Sloboda et al. (2010) offer a multidimensional perspective on the city in each context, reflecting on the policies, how they are actually implemented and how the implemented policies are perceived by different stakeholders. Although the nature of the policy, its implementation, and the experiences of stakeholders differed in each context, a common finding was the role of the individual agency in shaping the practical implementation of the policy, thereby hinting at the value of not only formulating formal policy but also managing the beliefs and emotions of stakeholders about the languages being managed (Sloboda et al., 2010, pp. 110-111). How people perceive LL is closely linked to how the use of visual language contributes to the construction of a "sense of place" (Jaworski & Yeung, 2010). LL is not a passive scene; it projects specific values that mediate residents' interpretations of themselves and their relationships with others in the space, thus forming a socially constructed "place" imbued with meaning (Curtin, 2009; Jaworski & Yeung, 2010, p. 155). Language planning for LL sometimes involves the deliberate management of people's "sense of place" (Hult, 2018). For example, Draper and Prasertsri (2013) describe a language support and revitalization program for the Isan people in Thailand, where attitudes towards the linguistic landscape were taken into account during planning. The research project included a survey of stakeholders about their attitudes towards multilingual signage. They found that there was generally a positive attitude towards multilingual signage, and respondents viewed the use of the Isan language on signage as contributing to identity development, language learning and maintenance (Draper and Prasertsri, 2013, p. 628). Thus, there was a congruence between the planning objectives of creating a sense of place through signage and people's beliefs about how a sense of place should be created. In contrast, Vigers (2013) shows the contradictions in Brittany between the projected sense of place through signage using Breton and the linguistic shift to French. Breton signage serves to commercialize the language as an indicator of heritage, offering the region a unique advantage for tourism, food and industry, but not as an indicator of linguistic vitality, since "each Breton or bilingual sign becomes simultaneously a reconstructed place of memory, a perpetuation of the language and an element of the Breton heritage experience" (Vigers, 2013, p. 175). In this case, learning-based planning involves the planning of images.

Additionally, Hult (2018) presents Linguistic Landscapes (LL) as not only a reflection of explicit language policies but also as a space where indirect or de facto language practices emerge. The discussion begins by recognizing that LL research often interacts with language policy in three major ways: 1. by situating signage within a broader sociopolitical context, 2. by conceptualizing LL as a form of implicit policymaking, and 3. by using LL findings to inform or critique existing policies.

Furthermore, the author emphasizes the interpretive power of LL. He argues that visual language in public spaces - such as signs, advertisements, and graffiti - acts as a mirror to broader ideological frameworks and policy environments. Here, LL is positioned not as isolated data but as contextualized evidence of how language values are shaped, contested, or normalized within societies. As an example, Pearson's (2015) research illustrates that changes in language policy, such as the shift from French to English dominance in Butare, Ethiopia, are mirrored in the evolving spoken language landscape, indicating the significant role of policy in shaping linguistic environments.

Moreover, the linguistic landscape is examined in relation to extralinguistic state ideologies. Sloboda (2009), for instance, generalizing the LL of the Czech Republic, Slovakia, and Belarus, has found that Belarus explicitly operates through education, politics, and the media a certain overt ideology that glorifies the state and state actors (e.g., soldiers and police), while in the Czech Republic and Slovakia the state ideology implicitly promotes political values around internationalization and civic responsibility (Sloboda, 2009, pp. 178–179). He argues that these ideological differences resonate in the respective chain stores, where the minimal presence of international chain stores in Belarus is consistent with the state ideology of a national market economy, while the presence of numerous chain stores in the Czech Republic and Slovakia indicates an ideology of participation in a transnational economy. Furthermore, the common presence of graffiti in the Czech Republic and Slovakia and its virtual absence in Belarus seem to be related to the ideology of order and the marginalization of socio-political opposition in the latter, as opposed to the former (Sloboda, 2009, pp. 180, 184-185).

Additionally, Hult (2018) suggests that LL functions as a ”de facto” policy space, where language hierarchies and power dynamics are enacted through habitual visual practices rather than formal legislative instruments. This frames LL as policy in practice - more authentic in some cases than official documents.

Interaction order, as described by Goffman (1983) and Scollon & Scollon (2004), plays a role in organizing visual language practices, revealing competing linguistic hierarchies. In mainstream contexts, Swedish is dominant, with English serving metaphorical functions related to globalization, while minority languages are rarely used for instrumental communication. In

contrast, minority contexts see Swedish used instrumentally, minority languages fulfilling important roles, and English symbolizing international cosmopolitanism. Similarly, Dal Negro (2009) observed in rural Italian communities that Standard German was more prevalent in South Tyrol, indicating a de facto policy of language standardization, whereas a local German variety thrived in the Walser village, reflecting a policy of tolerance for local language use.

The author further draws attention to tensions between de jure (official) and de facto (practiced) policies. For instance, Ethiopia's multilingual policies are reflected in LLs through competing presences of Amharic and regional languages like Tigrinya. Similarly, Blackwood and Tufi's (2012) comparison of French and Italian LLs shows how centralized and vague policies respectively lead to similar outcomes: the dominance of national languages over regional ones.

Finaly, both official and non-official actors play crucial roles in highlighting national languages and ensuring they are respected and prominent in the linguistic environment. Du Plessis (2010) observes that language landscape (LL) actors often respond more to implicit policies rather than explicit ones, emphasizing the need to focus on covert language management. Additionally, the linguistic landscape can foster meta-discursive discussions about official policies, as illustrated by the Dingle Wall in Ireland, where local debates arose over the renaming of Dingle to An Daingean following a government mandate. This space allowed for a dynamic exchange of views and became emblematic of political discourse about language. Similarly, linguistic landscape analysis can shed light on public political debates beyond language issues, as seen in the 2011 Occupy Movement and the Egyptian Revolution, where protest signs played a role in shaping discussions on economic and social change.

1.5. Challenges in the use of linguistic landscape

Exploring the linguistic landscape is a relatively new area of interest, but it encounters several problems both theoretically and methodologically. Let us discuss them in more detail.

Theoretical challenges and problems arise due to the interdisciplinary nature of the field, which draws from the different theories, such as sociolinguistics, language policy, and other disciplines. While some studies have attempted to connect the linguistic landscape with existing sociological theories, such as those by Ben Rafael, Shohamy, Amara, and Trumper-Hecht (2006), there remains a substantial gap in theoretical development. Many existing studies in this field are predominantly descriptive and lack explanatory depth. Future research stands to benefit significantly from applying established theoretical frameworks from various disciplines to enhance understanding and explanation in the study of the linguistic landscape.

Determining the unit of analysis poses a challenge due to the abundance of language signs clustered together. It becomes arduous, problematic to ascertain the individual identity of each linguistic sign. For instance, when numerous linguistic items are displayed in a shop window, it raises the question of whether they constitute a singular language sign or should be evaluated separately. Similarly, considerations arise regarding other elements like advertisements, graffiti, or posters adjacent, next to the shop window. Is it appropriate to regard an entire street as a unit of analysis? Each option carries both advantages and disadvantages. The choice of unit of analysis holds significant methodological importance as it facilitates comparability across studies. Therefore, careful decisions in this regard are essential.

The dynamic aspect of the linguistic landscape also poses a difficulty for study. While certain signs remain fixed over extended periods, many others undergo frequent alterations, sometimes even from one day to the next or within hours. Notably, signs displayed on buses and cars, although integral to the linguistic landscape, are often overlooked in academic studies. Additionally, elements like posters or graffiti exhibit rapid transformations, further complicating the analysis of this dynamic environment.

The problem of sampling and ensuring representativeness presents a significant hurdle. While capturing every language sign within a single city or region is impractical, it's crucial to establish criteria that enhance the representativeness of the signs being analyzed. One approach is to identify areas or streets with similar attributes across different cities and countries and thoroughly examine all signs within those selected locations. Additionally, it may be pertinent to choose locales that reflect various ethnocultural communities within the same country or city to observe their distinctions. Noteworthy methodological advancements addressing these challenges have been conducted in Italy by Barni (2006).

The last difficulty of LL discussed in this section is the use of different taxonomies. Researchers employ various taxonomies to differentiate between public (also known as 'top-down' or 'official') and private ('bottom-up' or 'non-official') signs. These distinctions are often analyzed in terms of the language(s) employed in the sign and the nature of the establishment where the sign is displayed. Additionally, numerous other attributes of signs are considered during coding processes. This may encompass factors such as the sign's location, font size, arrangement of languages on multilingual signs, the significance attributed to each language, whether the text has undergone translation (either fully or partially), the material composition of the sign, and so forth. The adoption of similar coding methodologies across studies can enhance comparability between studies conducted in diverse geographical locations.

PART 2

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LINGUISTIC LANDSCAPE AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING

Part 2 begins by laying out the theoretical dimensions of foreign language learning, focusing on key distinctions between native, second, state, and foreign languages, as well as the cognitive and pedagogical principles that underpin the learning of non-native languages. It outlines various approaches to language education, examining individual learner differences, methods for fostering motivation, and the role of immersive environments. Building upon this, Part 2 explores the potential of the linguistic landscape as a complementary tool in language learning. It highlights how public signage and environmental text function as authentic input for enhancing literacy, pragmatic competence, and intercultural awareness. Emphasis is placed on the educational value of the schoolscape and its ability to reinforce multilingual awareness in formal learning settings. Finally, Part 2 illustrates the theory and practice of bilingual education, offering a critical overview of its evolution, models, and implications for minority communities. It concludes with an in-depth case study of bilingual education in Transcarpathia, evaluating its implementation, challenges, and prospects within the broader context of language rights, national integration, and educational equity.

2.1 The aspects of foreign language learning

For a better understanding of the aspects of foreign language (FL) learning, it is worth to mention such terms as “native language” and “non-native language” (state and foreign language). Native language, also known as the first language (L1), according to Lozova (2010), is the one in which the child uttered his first words. She claims that the native language is not an innate language, as it does not exist and cannot be, since cases have been described many times when children of one nationality were raised in families of another nationality and from the very beginning began to speak the language of the family. But this is not the language of the parents, especially if the family is mixed.

Non-native language, in turn, can be of two types: second language and state language. If the language used in the community in which the child develops, then usually we talk about the second language, it can be the language of a national-linguistic minority. In contrast, the state or official language (for those for whom it is not native) is the language of interethnic communication. If there are very few or practically no native speakers of a given language in a particular linguistic environment, then it is a foreign language (Lozova, 2010).

In addition, the learning of a foreign language can be either spontaneous, for example, in a bilingual family and in a bilingual or multilingual environment in general, or pre-planned, controlled, for instance, learning a foreign language at school (Lozova, 2010).

Johnson (2017) draws a distinction between first language learning (learning one's mother tongue in childhood) and second language learning based on the degree of success of those who learn foreign languages. In fact, all children, regardless of their „talent" for language learning, neither of their social background, nor of their level of educational attainment, learn to speak their mother tongue or first language from a very early age. Some will take a little longer than others, but they all succeed.

Unfortunately, the same cannot be said for second language learning. There seem to be individual differences in second language learning. There are people with a special talent for learning languages, for example, Sir Richard Burton (a nineteenth-century explorer, spoke more than 40 languages), and "hopeless" people who may have good intentions, but are simply terrible, completely unable to form sentences in a foreign language and unable to change the accent of their native language in any way, for example, Edward Heath (Johnson, 2017). Most of us are somewhere between Richard Burton and Edward Heath. We manage to communicate in a foreign language, although we generally never approach the level of a native speaker. Unlike those who study their native language, those who learn a foreign language, at some point along the way we become fossilized (our foreign language stops moving forward and "gets stuck") (Johnson, 2017, p. 7).

In fact, foreign language learning encompasses various aspects, including linguistic literacy, cultural assimilation, cognitive ability, and educational adaptability. Proficiency is usually demonstrated through such skills as listening, speaking, writing and reading. However, despite progress, foreign language learning is still exam oriented. In addition, many secondary schools are trying to create a conducive learning environment (Song, 2018), which is seen as crucial factor affecting the effectiveness of foreign language learning.

Regarding methods to improve language learning, Li (2011) advocates a pedagogical approach that prioritizes cognitive development and a deep understanding of the real world. It involves adopting a multidimensional, interactive, student-centered teaching methodology to promote student engagement. Emphasis should be placed on developing practical skills alongside traditional language competencies to equip students with the necessary abilities and knowledge (Yu, 2018). Therefore, it is worth to consider improving teaching materials and setting precise learning objectives to improve the effectiveness of foreign language learning. In addition, teachers should strive to ignite students' enthusiasm for learning through extracurricular activities such as team exercises and outdoor excursions (Xu, 2018). In summary,

the field of foreign language learning offers ample opportunities for improvement, which is mainly due to the lack of immersive language environments, particularly the insufficient use of the language in public areas.

A pivotal aspect of cognitive learning theory is Jean Piaget's (1970) constructivist learning theory that underscores the dynamic nature of learning. According to it, learners actively construct knowledge's meaning through collaborative dialogue with educators and peers. In this case, learning environments rich in information and conducive to collaborative learning experiences play a crucial and essential role in foreign language learning. Furthermore, it underscores the contextual dimension in meaning construction that advocates for learning environments that foster discovery and exploration.

In addition, the construction of a linguistic landscape serves as a framework for foreign language learning within this context. Piaget (1970) proposes that psychological development emerges from the interaction between the individual and their environment. Thus, learning English as a foreign language, for instance, via the linguistic landscape exemplifies this interaction, wherein students' cognitive structures adapt to linguistic stimuli. In the next section we will expand on the relationship between linguistic landscape and language learning.

2.2. The correlation between linguistic landscapes and foreign language learning

Nowadays, the main focus of the research on the linguistic landscape is on its use in tourist destinations, multilingualism, the spread of English (foreign language), and related areas. There is a considerable scientific interest on the social and political aspects, which examines how the linguistic landscape reflects and shapes social and linguistic dynamics (Jarowski & Thurlow, 2010; Shohamy and Durk, 2009; Shohamy et al., 2010). However, in the field of language learning, the impact of the linguistic landscape on learning remains relatively understudied. Several studies suggest that the linguistic landscape is a valuable linguistic asset that can enhance language education, while other research focuses on linguistic norms and errors in foreign language learning. For example, Cenoz and Gorter (2008) argue that the linguistic landscape functions as an important resource for students' second language learning. Shohamy and Waksman (2009) argue that the linguistic landscape functions as a powerful educational tool, emphasizing the importance of students interpreting the multifaceted meanings of language in public spaces. Furthermore, Rowland (2012) highlights various benefits of the linguistic landscape, including improving students' literacy skills, enhancing pragmatic competence, facilitating implicit learning, and facilitating interdisciplinary development. Researchers such as Cenoz & Gorter (2008), Shang (2017) and others suggested that LL could contribute to language learning by serving as a source of authentic input for the development of pragmatic competence

and literacy skills, as well as for raising student's language awareness (Cenoz & Gorter, 2008). Language awareness is defined by the ALA (Association for Language Awareness) as "explicit knowledge about language and conscious perception and sensitivity in language learning, language teaching and language use" (Svalberg, 2007). Backhaus (2007), in turn, admits that the studies on the usage of English within linguistic environments highlights the increasing significance of English (foreign language) among other languages. Moreover, he underscores how analyzing linguistic landscapes can help in understanding multilingual phenomena. Similarly, research by Huebner (2016) identifies a key factor of LL, its capacity to evoke global values, such as modernism.

As it was mentioned above, some researchers highlight the educational potential of linguistic landscapes. Educational institutions, regardless of their status (private or public), are environments for students of diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds. It is the diverse family and situational backgrounds of students that shape their linguistic and cultural norms in this environment. Thus, educational institutions not only play a crucial role in shaping student development, but also perpetuate different social, political, cultural and linguistic ideologies (Kalekin & Fishman, 2004). Shang (2017) suggests that these landscapes are valuable resources for language learning methods. Furthermore, they reveal the deficiency of English language environments in facilitating students' English acquisition.

In this context, there is growing interest in studying the "school landscape". Researchers such as Biro (2016), Gorter and Senoz (2015), and others have made significant contributions to the development of analytical methods used to understand the school landscape.

The concept of language ecology in educational spaces was first introduced by Brown (2012). He argues that schools, as central civic institutions, serve as intentional environments where students are exposed to influential messages about language from local and national authorities (ibid., p. 281). The research showed that factors influencing Võro language use included administrative policies, community and parental support, teacher autonomy in language choice, and the physical location of school buildings.

In Estonian schools, for instance, where historically regional languages were absent from formal education, now modern schools are creating an environment conducive to the resurgence of minority languages while the speakers are trying to stem the tide of erosion of their languages. Brown (2012) investigated numerous aspects of the school environment such as classroom signage, hallway and foyer signage, signage at school entrances, signage in school museums, and curricular aspects. The study of teachers and administrators' perceptions of installing the signage allowed Brown to conclude that the regional language has been framed as a valuable historical

artefact that added value to the national culture. Finally, the return of a minority language has leveraged negotiation within the public-school environments.

Gorter and Cenoz (2015), in turn, conducted an analysis of signage in seven schools in the Basque Autonomous Community, focusing on their purpose/function, language use, and origins. This study results from a regional initiative to promote the Basque language in the late 1970s. By analyzing LL inside and outside the school environment, researchers have identified various functions of signage such as language and subject learning, promoting linguistic and intercultural awareness, establishing behavioral guidelines, providing general school guidelines, and providing commercial information. Findings showed that multilingual signage contributes to increasing students' literacy and intercultural competence.

Similarly, Hungarian researchers Szabo (2015) and Bíró (2016) did. Szabo's (2015) study focused on signs in four public and private schools in Budapest, Hungary. The collected material (photographed signs and recorded teacher speeches) reflected people's engagement in social activities. On the other hand, Bíró (2016) conducted a qualitative study of language learning and teaching ideologies through signs and teacher comments in four Hungarian-medium schools (primary and secondary) in Sfintu Gheorghe, Romania. The study examined hidden aspects of the curriculum related to the teaching of English, German or Romanian as a second language in schools with a Hungarian majority. The findings of the research demonstrated that despite the prevalence of Romanian as a majority language, it was not taught as a second language to Hungarian minority students. He noted a bias towards supporting the Romanian language in top-down signage, along with encouraging student work in Romanian and English, which is consistent with educators' implicit curriculum and national recommendations.

Furthermore, Chirimala (2018) explored a schoolscape that underscored the educational significance of signs in language acquisition. The study concluded that students actively noticed and used the signs present in their school environment as practical aids for language-related tasks. In addition, Astillero (2017) has studied the linguistic landscape of a public secondary school in Irosin, Sorsogon, Philippines where regional Bikol languages are spoken. Remarkably, the study observed that despite the presence of bilingual and mixed (Bikol, Filipino, and English) language signs in some instances, the overall practice highlighted a lack of support for multilingual speakers within formal educational settings. This absence of support showed the school's reluctance to embrace multilingualism advocated by the Department of Education of the Philippines.

2.3. Linguistic landscapes in bilingual education

Bilingual education plays a significant role in shaping how languages are used, valued, and displayed in multilingual regions. It directly influences the linguistic landscape (LL) by promoting certain languages through formal instruction, which in turn affects how these languages appear and are perceived in public space. In regions like Transcarpathia, where multiple languages coexist, the nature of bilingual education reflects broader state ideologies and social dynamics.

According to Anderson and Boyer (1970), bilingual education (BE) as the provision of instruction in two languages, using both as mediums of instruction across various school subjects (ibid. p. 12). Garcia (2009), in turn, supports it claiming BE as the use of two languages in teaching and assessing students.

For a better understanding of the main concept of bilingual education, it is worth to mention three main definitions, namely "linguistic ecology", "languaging" and "translanguaging". Linguistic ecology is defined as an approach in which bilingual education is seen as a means by which children and young people can interact within their own ethnolinguistic community (Mühlhäusler, 1996). Thus, the task of bilingual schools is to prepare children to balance their own linguistic ecology (Fettes & Karamouzian, 2003), allowing them to move freely between languages and overlapping scripts. According to Mühlhäusler (2000), a significant role in linguistic ecology is played by „automatic language adaptation" and „language contact", which helps to maintain the balance between the two languages. (Tsai, 2005, p.11). Children and teachers need to be made aware of their capacity for self-regulation, as languages take on complementary and overlapping roles in different areas of communication (Mühlhäusler 2002), but without external language management by the state or even the school itself.

On the other hand, according to Yngve (1996), languages were formed separately "outside and above people" (ibid. 1996, p. 28) and have little to do with the ways in which people use language, their discursive practices or what Yngve also calls languaging. Shohamy (2006b) defines languaging as people's language practices. Pennycook (2010, p. 9) continues with stating that language is "the product of the embodied social practices that make it happen". It follows that all learners need to embody their language practices in schools if they are to find meaning in their education. It is bilingual education that gives all students the opportunity to do this: to use language, to speak in ways that constitute them, connect them, and relate them to their human activities.

Regarding the term "translingualism", that was coined by Williams (1994), initially used it in pedagogical practice in which students alternated between languages for receptive or

productive use (Baker 2011). At present, translinguism does not refer to the use of two separate languages, or even the transition from one language to another, but rather to the belief that bilingual speakers select linguistic features from a single integrated system and deliberately compose their linguistic practices in such a way that they correspond to their communicative situations. That is, bilinguals draw social features into a network of multiple semiotic signs, adapting their language to the immediate task environment. Bilingualism, as a finely tuned mechanism, emerges in the process of action, with each action being locally situated and unique to satisfy contextual constraints, and creating interdependencies between all components of the system. Thus, this approach has direct implications for the linguistic landscape, e.g. when students are encouraged to engage in translanguaging, they also become more attuned to multilingual signage, labels, and language norms in public space. Moreover, it reflects the realities of language use in multilingual regions like Transcarpathia (with the majority of Hungarian population that is almost 62% (1.Csernicskó I., Hires-László K., Karmacsi, Z., Márku, A., Máté, R. and Tóth-Orosz E., 2020), where students have the opportunity to study at schools with the Hungarian and Ukrainian language of instruction (Huszti, Csernicskó I. & Bárány E., 2019). When education supports this kind of multilingualism, it can help sustain a diverse linguistic landscape. However, when education policies enforce rigid boundaries and monolingual norms, these are mirrored in the linguistic landscape, narrowing the space for linguistic diversity. Bilingual education in Transcarpathia is a rather unstable and uncertain criterion that requires preliminary decisions.

It is also worth mentioning the Law of Ukraine on the State Language of 2019, which is relevant even at the present time, aims to "create appropriate conditions for ensuring and protecting the linguistic rights and needs of Ukrainians" (Csernicskó, I. and Tóth M., 2019), abolishes the status of the regional official language of Hungarian, which cannot be used as an official language in the work of district, county or local authorities even in almost 100% of settlements with a Hungarian population (Csernicskó I., Hires-László K., Karmacsi, Z., Márku, A., Máté, R. and Tóth-Orosz E., 2020). It illustrates the close link between schooling and the linguistic landscape. In fact, the law restricted the use of minority languages as mediums of instruction, aiming instead for Ukrainian-language dominance. As a result, the visibility of minority languages in public space has declined, suggesting a shift in the region's linguistic ecology (Garcia, 2009; Garcia, O., & Woodley, H., 2014).

PART 3

THE EMPIRICAL VALUE OF LINGUISTIC LANDSCAPE IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING

This part presents the analysis of learners' and teachers' perceptions of the linguistic landscape as a tool in foreign language learning and teaching. Moreover, it provides the research results of the LL collected at the Ferenc Rákóczi II Transcarpathian Hungarian College of Higher Education and its surroundings. Part 3 also discusses the methodology used in the research, its participants, procedures, results as well as the implications based on the findings.

3.1. Methodology

The study aimed to analyze both teachers' and students' perceptions of the linguistic landscape as a teaching and learning tool. To achieve this, a survey design within a quantitative paradigm was employed. The data were collected through a questionnaire administered to twenty-six teachers and 1–4-year BA and 1,2-year MA students of Ferenc Rákóczi II Transcarpathian Hungarian College of Higher Education.

There were compiled two separate questionnaires in Ukrainian, Hungarian and English languages (see Appendix) for both teachers and students. The teachers' questionnaire consisted of 35 items altogether, either multiple choice, open or likert-scale. It included questions about teachers' demographic data such as subject, languages and grade level(s) they teach as well as years of teaching. The main body of the questionnaire focused on teachers' familiarity with the concept of the linguistic landscape (LL) and their beliefs about its pedagogical usefulness. In addition, the participants were asked to reveal their views on the relevance of LL for making learning more meaningful and reflective of students' lived experiences. The respondents also had to indicate whether they experienced challenges or limitations of using the LL in foreign language teaching. Finally, the teachers were requested to list suggestions, if any, for improving the linguistic landscape in our college for effective foreign language learning.

The students' questionnaire, in turn, focused on evaluating their views on the usefulness of LL in foreign language learning. It contained 41 questions, including Likert-scale, multiple-choice, and open-ended formats. Like in the teacher survey, it included the questions about students' demographic data i.e. age, gender, academic standing, their major, native and foreign languages, and duration of foreign language learning. Later the participants were asked to identify LL among provided photos that included both natural landscapes, famous paintings (e.g. the *Mona Lisa*), and actual LL instances such as signboards, building names, etc. This task served as a brain-storming activity to assess students' familiarity with the concept of LL.

Furthermore, the students had to reflect on the LL of both college and the town of Berehove evaluating aspects such as clarity, structure, and the presence of bilingual or multilingual signs. The respondents were also inquired to reflect on their motivation and interest in foreign languages triggered by exposure to visible language use in public spaces. The survey designed to uncover patterns in how bilingual students interact with and interpret their linguistic environment, as well as the extent to which this influences their language learning motivation, comprehension, and educational outcomes. The research was conducted via Google Forms platform during spring semester of the 2024-2025 academic year.

Beyond exploring the teachers' and students' perception of LL in the context of foreign language learning, our research also seeks to examine how LL at the college and its immediate surroundings in Berehove, including signs, advertisements, and other forms of written language, can enhance foreign language learning. For this purpose, the quantitative method was used. There were collected a total of 125 photos about LL in Ferenc Rákóczi II Transcarpathian Hungarian College of Higher Education and its surrounding streets (i.e. Sechenyi Street, Heroes Square, Stefanyk Street, Bohdan Khmelnytskyi Street, and Mukachivska Street). The photos comprised of both top-down (public) and bottom-up also known as private types of LL.

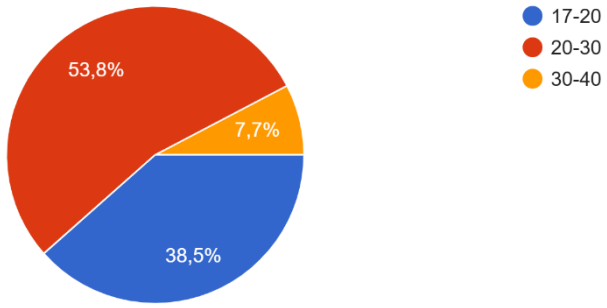
Thus, to achieve the main aims of our current study mentioned above, the following research questions were addressed:

- Which language – English, Hungarian, or Ukrainian – is the most visible in the LL of both Ferenc Rákóczi II Transcarpathian Hungarian College of Higher Education and its surroundings?
- Is the LL of in these areas clear and well-structured enough to support foreign language learning (e.g. correct spelling, etc.)?
- How does language visibility influence student learning? Does it motivate students to learn foreign languages?
- What pedagogical value does LL hold for language learning?
- Based on Landry and Bourhis' (1997) survey of French-speaking high school students in different parts of Canada, which showed that French was more visible in public signs and surroundings where students felt a strong connection to their French-speaking identity (in other words, where the majority of the population was Francophone), can we expect Hungarian to be more visible in public signs and other forms of linguistic landscape in and around the college taking into account that the majority of Hungarians in Transcarpathia (62%) still live in settlements (Csernicskó I., Hires-László K., Karmacsi, Z., Márku, A., Máté, R. and Tóth-Orosz E., 2020)?

3.2. Participants

The demographic overview of participants in this research on LL as a tool in foreign language learning reveals a diverse group of individuals with varying backgrounds and level of experience. Both students and teachers of the Transcarpathian Hungarian Institute named after Ferenc Rakoczi II took part in our research. Among the total group of participants, a subset of 30 students aged between 17 and 40 took part in the questionnaire. Twenty-three females and seven males completed the questionnaires. The students represent a range of academic disciplines and degree levels, including Accounting and Auditing (1st and 4th-year BA students), Geography and Tourism (2nd-year MA and 3rd-year BA students), Biology and Chemistry (1st and 3rd-year BA students), and Pedagogy-related fields such as Primary and Preschool Education, and Educational Institution Management (2nd-year BA students). Additionally, several students from various Philology majors participated in the questionnaire. It includes students specializing in Hungarian Language and Literature (4th-year BA and 1st-year MA), Ukrainian Language and Literature (3rd-year BA students), and English Language and Literature (1st–4th year BA and 1st–2nd year MA students).

Diagram 3.2.1. The age range of students



All participants have been studying foreign languages for more than a year. Their native languages are either Ukrainian or Hungarian. The majority (23 students) are learning English as a foreign language, while a smaller number are studying Hungarian (2 students), Ukrainian (4 students), and one participant is learning the Māori language. This variety in linguistic backgrounds and language learning experiences enriches the dataset, allowing for a more nuanced analysis of factors influencing foreign language learning among students.

The teacher questionnaires were completed by ten instructors who teach Hungarian, English, or Ukrainian as a foreign language. Thus, their responses helped us better assess the usefulness of the linguistic landscape (LL) as a tool in foreign language learning. The participants' teaching experience ranges from 2 to 42 years, reflecting a wide spectrum of

professional backgrounds. Besides their work at the college, 30% of the respondents also teach a foreign language at the schools.

3.3. Procedure

As mentioned earlier, a total of 125 photographs of the landscape of the institute and its surroundings were collected. It included signboards, advertisements, announcements, building names, street names as well as commercial or informational signs found on shops and businesses. The collected data were analyzed according to its:

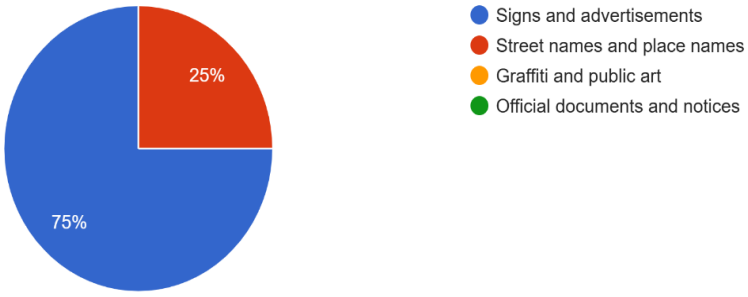
- location (Ferenc Rákóczi II Transcarpathian Hungarian College of Higher Education and on surrounding streets, i.e. Sechenyi Street, Heroes Square, Stefanyk Street, Bohdan Khmelnytskyi Street, and Mukachivska Street);
- languages depicted on it, according to its priority (e.g. written in larger font, order of location of the language, etc.)
- type of linguistic landscape („top-down" or „bottom-up") (Ben-Rafael, Shohamy, Amara and Trumper-Hecht, 2006).

Taking all of this into account, we were able to answer the research questions regarding the role of the linguistic landscape in supporting foreign language learning both within the college and on the surrounding streets.

3.4. Findings and discussion of the results

In reviewing the research findings, it becomes evident that a significant majority of teachers (90%) are not only aware of the concept of the linguistic landscape (LL) but also actively use elements of LL as a didactic tool. Nevertheless, 10 % of the respondents do not support this view, considering LL as an ineffective tool in foreign language learning. Furthermore, the majority of teachers found signs and advertisements the most useful aspects of linguistic landscape in teaching. In contrast, a minority of participants (25%) indicated street names and place names as another useful LL element in teaching (Diagram 3.4.1).

Diagram 3.4.1 The most useful aspects of LL in teaching

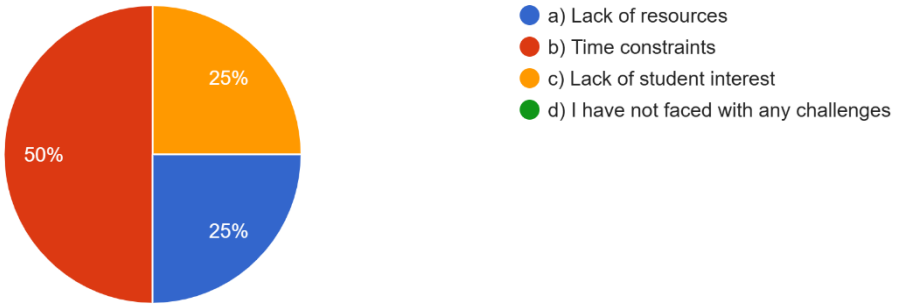


The results of the study also indicate that the use of the linguistic landscape (LL) in educational settings offers numerous potential benefits, particularly in the fields of language learning, sociolinguistics, and cultural studies. The findings showed that by engaging with authentic, real-world materials, students gain exposure to practical language use that extends beyond the classroom, making the learning process more meaningful and relevant to everyday communication. Interestingly, LL promotes multimodal learning by integrating visual, linguistic, and cultural elements, which supports deeper cognitive engagement and appeals to diverse learning styles. The current study found, that the presence of multilingual texts on the LL encourages the development of critical thinking, as students are prompted to compare language structures, identify stylistic or grammatical inconsistencies, and reflect on cross-cultural differences in communication. Moreover, according to the teachers' responses, LL promotes awareness of cultural diversity and supports vocabulary acquisition. This finding not only enhances linguistic awareness but also fosters cultural sensitivity and a better understanding of how language operates in real-life contexts.

Another important finding was that LL is particularly effective in supporting multilingualism and is well-suited for learning approaches. It allows learners to explore and analyze their environment, contributing to their sense of orientation and spatial awareness. In regions such as town of Berehove, where a Hungarian-Ukrainian bilingual LL predominates, students can more easily relate to the linguistic content and incorporate it into their learning experience. However, this contrasts with other areas where Ukrainian-English signage is more common, highlighting a variation in LL exposure based on local sociolinguistic contexts. This aspect illustrates how the educational value of LL dependents on such factors as the linguistic environment in which students are situated.

Despite the benefits of the LL in foreign language learning, there are some challenges teachers face while incorporating LL in the teaching. These constraints include a lack of established pedagogical resources and methods for effectively integrating LL into lesson plans, limited instructional time, and in some cases, a lack of student interest (Diagram 3.4.2). Moreover, the uneven distribution of languages in the public space can result in unequal exposure, which may disadvantage certain linguistic groups. Other concerns include the appropriateness and readability of public texts, which may contain errors, small fonts, or culturally sensitive content that need careful handling. Finally, incorporating LL-based activities requires careful planning to ensure alignment with students' language proficiency levels and learning objectives.

Diagram 3.4.2. Challenges teachers faced when incorporating linguistic landscape elements in your teaching



While the LL is undoubtedly a rich resource for language education, these practical considerations underscore the need for curriculum development, and context-specific adaptations to fully realize its pedagogical potential. Relying on the students' responses, a number of key insights emerge regarding their engagement with the LL. One of the most commonly reported challenges was encountering unfamiliar vocabulary in foreign languages, which often made it difficult for students to fully comprehend signage and texts.

Nevertheless, this often leads to productive learning behavior: the major portion of students (93,2%) reported actively searching for meanings using the internet, figuring out on their own and using other clues, which contributes to incidental vocabulary acquisition. This demonstrates that exposure to LL can create spontaneous learning opportunities.

Importantly, the research found that students have attempted to use words or expressions encountered in the LL in their own speech or writing. It suggests that the LL not only enhances passive understanding but also encourages active language use, which is essential for language development. Although most students (57%) see LL as only partially or not useful at all for language learning in the formal school context, their responses indicate that it does have a motivating effect. The presence of foreign language signage around the institution stimulates their interest in those languages and can inspire further learning.

Additionally, students expressed generally positive views of LL within the institute, noting that the signs are usually clear and easy to understand. However, some issues were identified, such as small font sizes or awkward translations, which may hinder comprehension. Based on these findings, a number of recommendations for improving the LL were proposed. One of the most frequently mentioned suggestions was to expand the presence of multilingual signage - not only in specialized language classrooms but throughout the entire academic environment. Students and teachers alike emphasized the importance of including multiple

languages, i.e. Ukrainian, Hungarian, English, and German to better reflect the multilingual context of the institution and to enhance students' exposure to authentic language input across different domains of campus life. Linguistic landscape of Ferenc Rákóczi II Transcarpathian Hungarian College of Higher Education and its surroundings

Both LLs in the college and its surroundings perform a variety of languages including Ukrainian, Hungarian, English, Latin, in some cases even German, Italian, Spanish, French and others. The findings of the analysis of the LL at Sechenyi Street, Heroes Square, Stefanyk Street, Bohdan Khmelnytskyi Street, and Mukachivska Street in Table 1 demonstrate the inequality between top-down and bottom-up signs, that suggests a higher level of multilingual expression in the private and commercial sphere.

Table 3.4.1 Analysis of linguistic landscape (LL) photos collected in Berehove, categorized by type and language used

	Top-down (public)	Bottom-up (private)
German, English		1
Ukrainian, Hungarian	7	5
English	1	13
Ukrainian	2	
Hungarian		2
Hungarian, Ukrainian	6	4
Hungarian, Russian		1
English, Hungarian, Ukrainian		2
Ukrainian, English		8
Latin, Hungarian, Ukrainian	1	
English, Hungarian		2
Overall	17	38

The findings also revealed that a significant proportion of the signs are bilingual, which facilitates access to information for the majority of the population in Berehove. On the other hand, there is still a small number of monolingual top-down LL possibly related to historical or ceremonial use. As Table 3.4.1 shows, Ukrainian has strong official presence, in line with state language policy. In contrast, Hungarian's strong top-down and bottom-up visibility suggests a significant local minority population and the influence of minority language rights (Csernicskó I., Hires-László K., Karmacsi, Z., Márku, A., Máté, R. and Tóth-Orosz E., 2020).

Figure 3.4.1 The building name of the District Library of Berehove

It is apparent from the Table above, that English appears more often in bottom-up contexts, likely reflecting globalization, tourism, or prestige. In contrast, the majority of public linguistic landscape signs are in Ukrainian-Hungarian or Hungarian-Ukrainian, reflecting governmental support for both the Ukrainian and Hungarian communities.

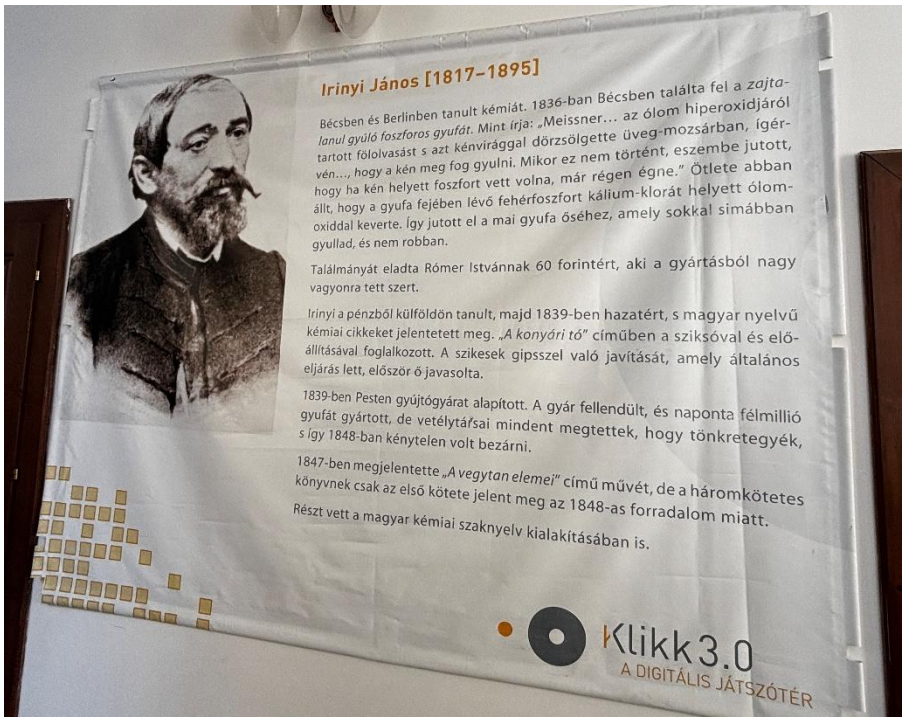
Comparing the LL of Ferenc Rakoczi II Trancarpathian Hungarian College of Higher education to the results above, the number of top-down type of LL dominate above bottom-up one (see Table 3.4.2). On the other hand, bottom-up signs are more linguistically diverse, featuring Latin, English, and multilingual combinations.

Table 3.4.2. Results of the LL collected Ferenc Rakoczi II Trancarpathian Hungarian College of Higher Education

Language	Top-down (public)	Bottom-up (private)
Hungarian, Ukrainian, English	3	
Hungarian, Ukrainian	13	5
English	3	
Hungarian	5	3
Ukrainian	5	
Ukrainian, English		3
Hungarian, Latin	1	2
Hungarian, English		1
Italian, English, French, Spanish, German	1	
Latin		3
Ukrainian, Hungarian	8	3
Overall	49	21

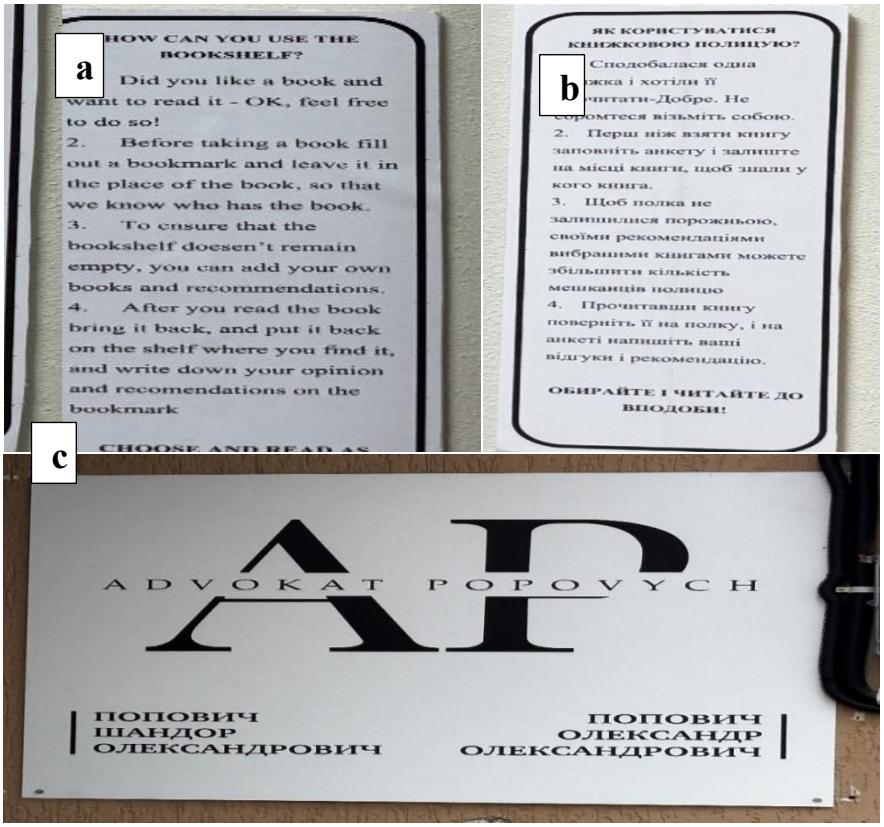
It has been revealed that the most part of signage is bilingual in Hungarian and Ukrainian languages, that reflects institutional recognition of minority rights. The presence of Hungarian monolingual signs alongside bilingual ones reveals local demographics. These findings of the current study are consistent with those of Landry and Bourhis' (1997) survey of French-speaking high school students in different parts of Canada, who found that French was more visible in public signs and surroundings where students felt a strong connection to their French-speaking identity (in other words, where the majority of the population was Francophone).

Figure 3.4.2. Hungarian monolingual announcement found in Ferenc Rákóczi II Transcarpathian Hungarian College of Higher Education



In the context of foreign language learning, the analysis of the linguistic landscape (LL) collected both within the Ferenc Rákóczi II Transcarpathian Hungarian College of Higher Education and in its surrounding areas demonstrates that the LL is generally clear and comprehensible, thereby supporting the acquisition of foreign languages. However, certain exceptions may hinder the learning process and contribute to confusion among language learners. For instance, Figure 3.4.3. (a, b) contains examples in English and Ukrainian that include errors such as „doesen't" (a spelling mistake in English) and "полицую" (a misspelling in Ukrainian), as well as „полка" (a Russian word), which may lead to misinterpretation or misunderstanding. These inaccuracies can compromise the clarity of language input for learners. Additionally, Figure 3.4.3. (c), which displays „Advokat Popovych", while potentially reflecting aspects of globalization, tourism, or prestige, does not provide any pedagogical value for language learning.

Figure 3.4.3. Exceptions of LL: a,b – LL collected at the college; c – gathered on Sechenyi Street.



3.5 Consequences and implications

The findings of the research indicate that the linguistic landscape (LL) is a versatile and valuable tool in foreign language learning, offering exposure to a diversity of languages and making information accessible to a multilingual society. This is particularly evident at the Ferenc Rákóczi II Transcarpathian Hungarian College of Higher Education and in the town of Berehove, where the LL reflects both state language policies and institutional language practices. Nevertheless, there are challenges of LL that face both teachers and learners such as a lack of established pedagogical resources and methods for effectively integrating LL into lesson plans, limited instructional time, and in some cases, a lack of student interest, unknown words, lack of multilingual LL inside and outside the college. In response to these challenges students and teachers encounter with, several recommendations can be offered. It is essential to make the LL more engaging and interactive throughout the campus environment. In this regard, teachers have suggested several strategies:

- Interactive language boards or walls, that provide dynamic spaces where students can collaboratively engage with language through writing, correcting, or translating. The establishment of cultural and language zones can immerse learners in authentic cultural and linguistic contexts.

- Technological tools such as QR codes attached to signs or objects can link to audio guides, vocabulary explanations, or cultural insights, offering extended learning opportunities.
- Involving students in creating content, such as posters or digital materials, fosters active participation and deeper cognitive engagement.
- Language-themed bulletin boards, along with the labeling of physical objects in multiple languages, further support incidental learning. Additionally, incorporating language-based games or challenges, such as word puzzles, adds an element of fun and motivation. Digital screens or public announcement systems can be used to display multilingual messages, idioms, or word-of-the-day features.
- Language exchange corners offer informal settings for peer-to-peer conversation practice, promoting communicative competence and intercultural dialogue.

Additionally, teachers suggest providing more visual aids connecting to LL. Incorporating all these recommendations, LL will serve as an effective tool in foreign learning not only for learners, but for teachers as well.

The current research illustrates that both Hungarian and Ukrainian languages are present almost at the same level in the Ferenc Rákóczi II Transcarpathian Hungarian College of Higher Education and its surroundings, reflecting the institution's language policy. It is noteworthy, however, Hungarian monolingual signage is more dominant within the college, that partially confirms our expectation that Hungarian is more visible in public signage and other forms of the linguistic landscape. It highlights that the majority of Hungarians in Transcarpathia (62%) still reside in predominantly Hungarian settlements (Csernicskó et al., 2020). This finding also reinforces the college's identity as a higher education institution with a primary focus on the Hungarian language and culture. Moreover, the findings demonstrated that, overall, the linguistic landscape is sufficiently clear to support foreign language learning. Nevertheless, certain aspects require improvement such as particularly in spelling accuracy and the quality of translations in order to enhance comprehensibility and avoid potential misunderstandings or incorrect language acquisition.

The analysis of student questionnaires further revealed that language visibility through the LL significantly influences their motivation to learn foreign languages. Thus, the linguistic landscape holds substantial pedagogical value i.e. it enhances language awareness, fosters critical thinking, promotes cultural sensitivity and appreciation of diversity, and supports vocabulary development and language acquisition.

CONCLUSION

Through the detailed examination of the linguistic landscape (LL) and its potential role in foreign language learning, it has become clear that LL is not merely a feature of public space but a powerful didactic tool that holds considerable pedagogical value. The theoretical foundation reviewed in the earlier chapters established a strong connection between LL, bilingual education, and multimodal learning strategies.

In the subsequent empirical analysis, the study focused on Ferenc Rákóczi II Transcarpathian Hungarian College of Higher Education and its surroundings. It revealed that the majority of teachers (90%) are familiar with and supportive of LL as a pedagogical resource. The educators identified signs and advertisements as the most useful types of linguistic input, which aligns with their potential to provide authentic, real-world language exposure in context. On the other hand, a small portion of teachers (10%) expressed skepticism, citing inefficiencies or limitations of LL in formal instruction.

The results derived from student feedback offer additional insights. Although a significant number of students (57%) initially claimed LL is only partially useful in the formal language learning context, the data showed that LL triggers incidental vocabulary acquisition, independent learning, and active use of newly encountered expressions. Many students admitted to searching online for unfamiliar terms and incorporating them into their speech or writing. This kind of behavior reinforces the idea that the linguistic landscape can stimulate learner autonomy and intrinsic motivation.

Findings also demonstrated that both teachers and students recognize the motivational and cognitive potential of LL. However, there are practical limitations. Teachers reported difficulties related to the lack of pedagogical resources, limited instructional time, and occasional student disinterest. Furthermore, issues such as errors in public signage, small font sizes, and inappropriate language use may complicate the learning process. These factors were also observed in the visual data collected around the college, where occasional misspellings or ambiguous multilingual texts can create confusion.

The study's contribution lies in its combination of qualitative and quantitative research methods to evaluate LL both as an environmental feature and as a pedagogical instrument. The in-depth analysis of over 100 signage samples, categorized by language and context, revealed patterns of language visibility, official language use, and minority language representation. Hungarian-Ukrainian bilingual signage was especially prevalent, reflecting both local demographics and state language policy.

An important implication of this study is the need for integrating LL more systematically into the curriculum. Based on the collected data, both students and teachers recommended expanding multilingual signage within the educational environment and using LL as part of structured language tasks.

Further research should broaden the investigation to include more educational institutions across Transcarpathia and other multilingual regions. Comparative studies involving different sociolinguistic environments would yield deeper insights into the variability of LL's impact. It would also be worthwhile to examine digital LL, particularly in how online signage and virtual environments contribute to foreign language learning.

In conclusion, the linguistic landscape in and around educational institutions represents a rich, underutilized resource that, when applied with careful pedagogical planning, can significantly enhance foreign language learning. It is not a substitute for structured instruction but a complementary tool that fosters real-world language engagement, cross-cultural awareness, and learner motivation.

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РЕЗЮМЕ

Актуальність теми дослідження зумовлена зростаючим інтересом до мовного ландшафту (МЛ) як інструменту у вивченні іноземних мов, зокрема в багатомовних регіонах, таких як Закарпаття. Об'єктом дослідження є мовний ландшафт як засіб у вивченні іноземної мови. Предметом є користь та труднощі, пов'язані з використанням МЛ у навчальному процесі, на прикладі Закарпатського угорського інституту ім. Ф. Ракоці II та його околиць. Метою є дослідити, наскільки ефективним є МЛ у сприянні вивченню іноземних мов, а також проаналізувати ставлення до нього з боку студентів та викладачів.

Завданням даної роботи є всебічне дослідження мовного ландшафту як інструменту у процесі вивчення іноземної мови. Зокрема, робота передбачає аналіз теоретичних засад поняття «мовний ландшафт» та його взаємозв'язку з вивченням іноземних мов і двомовною освітою. Одним із ключових завдань є вивчення сприйняття студентами впливу мовного ландшафту на процес опанування іноземної мови, а також з'ясування думки викладачів щодо ефективності його використання у навчальному середовищі. Окрему увагу приділено емпіричному аналізу мовного ландшафту Закарпатського угорського інституту імені Ференца Ракоці II та його околиць з метою визначення того, наскільки він сприяє або, навпаки, обмежує вивчення іноземних мов у місті Берегове.

Методологія дослідження поєднує теоретичні методи (аналіз, узагальнення, класифікація наукових джерел) та емпіричні методи, зокрема анкетування студентів та викладачів, а також спостереження за МЛ у межах інституту та його околиць.

Магістерська робота складається зі вступу, трьох частин, висновків, резюме, списку використаних джерел (понад 100 найменувань), додатків (анкети, фотоматеріали), має обсяг 70 сторінок, містить таблиці та діаграми, що ілюструють результати дослідження.

У першій частині представлено теоретичні засади поняття «мовний ландшафт», розглянуто його визначення різними науковцями (Landry and Bourhis, 1997; Cosgrove, 1984; Satinská, 2013; Shohamy and Waksman, 2009 та ін.), функції, типи (зверху-вниз і знизу-вгору), а також зв'язок з багатомовністю та мовною політикою.

Друга частина присвячена зв'язку між мовним ландшафтом та вивченням іноземних мов. Розглянуто дослідження Cenoz & Gorter (2008), Shohamy & Waksman (2009), Rowland (2012), Shang (2017) та інших які демонструють, що МЛ сприяє розвитку мовної обізнаності, грамотності, прагматичної компетенції та міждисциплінарного мислення. Особливу увагу приділено поняттю «шкільного ландшафту» та його дидактичному потенціалу. Також було розглянуто поняття «двомовна освіта» та її вплив на мовний ландшафт.

У третій частині подано емпіричне дослідження, яке включає аналіз мовного ландшафту в Закарпатському угорському інституті та його околицях, а також результати анкетування студентів і викладачів, яке було створено у форматі Google Forms. Завдяки цьому було виявлено, що більшість респондентів визнає потенціал МЛ у підтримці мотивації до вивчення мов, проте зазначає також певні труднощі – зокрема, обмежену доступність іноземної мови у вивісках, незнайомі слова та недостатню системність використання МЛ у навчальному процесі.

Ключові слова: мовний ландшафт, іноземна мова, багатомовність, шкільний ландшафт, мовна політика, вивчення мови, мотивація, Берегове, вивіски.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1

Questionnaire for teachers

1. Subject(s) taught…
2. Years of teaching experience…
3. Grade level(s) you teach…
4. **Language(s) you teach:**
   - Ukrainian as a Foreign Language
   - Hungarian as a Foreign Language
   - English as a Foreign Language
5. **Please select the photographs that depict examples of the Linguistic Landscape.**

1. 

2. 

3. 

4. 

5. 

6. 
100%
BEEF
TEXAS
BURGER
KENTUCKY
CHICKEN
BURGER
замовити / előrendelés
099 46 92 836

7. 
VELO

8. 
make art studio
PERMANENT

9. 

10. 
restaurant

11. 
ようこそ
ยินดี ต้อนรับ
Welcome
欢 迎 光 临
歡 迎 光 臨

12. 
МІНІСТЕРСТВО ОХОРОНИ ЗДОРОВ'Я
УКРАЇНИ
ДЕРЖАВНИЙ ЗАКЛАД
"БЕРЕГІВСЬКА
РАЙОННА САНІТАРНО-
ЕПІДЕМІОЛОГІЧНА
СТАНЦІЯ"

6. **Are you familiar with the concept of the linguistic landscape (e.g., the visual presence of languages in signs, advertisements, public spaces)?**
    - Yes
    - No
7. **If yes, how would you define or describe the linguistic landscape? (open-ended question)**
8. **Do you use signs and advertisements in English, Hungarian, or Ukrainian as didactic materials?**
    - Yes
    - No
9. **How often do you include real-world linguistic resources (like signs, advertisements, etc.) in your lesson plans?**
    a) Very often
    b) Often
    c) Sometimes
    d) Rarely
    e) Never
10. **In your opinion, how beneficial is the linguistic landscape in enhancing language learning for students?**
    a) Very beneficial
    b) Beneficial
    c) Somewhat beneficial
    d) Not beneficial
11. **In your opinion, what are the potential benefits of using the linguistic landscape in teaching?**
12. **How useful do you believe the linguistic landscape is in teaching language(s)?**
    a) Very useful
    b) Useful
    c) Somewhat useful
    d) Not useful
    e) Not applicable
13. **Which aspects of the linguistic landscape do you find most useful for teaching?**
    - Signs and advertisements
    - Street names and place names
    - Graffiti and public art

- Official documents and notices
- Other…

14. **Please rate the usefulness of the linguistic landscape for the following purposes in education (1 = Not useful, 5 = Extremely useful)**
    - Enhancing students' language awareness
    - Encouraging critical thinking skills
    - Promoting cultural sensitivity and diversity
    - Supporting vocabulary and language acquisition
15. **Do students notice the development of their language skills through the analysis of real environmental linguistic examples?**
    - Yes
    - No
16. **Do you believe that the variety of languages in the linguistic landscape can enhance students' motivation to learn?**

    a) Yes, greatly

    b) Yes, somewhat

    c) Not really

    d) Not at all
17. **Have you observed an increase in student engagement when using examples from the linguistic landscape in your lessons?**

    a) Yes, significantly

    b) Yes, somewhat

    c) No impact

    d) No, it decreases engagement
18. **Which language skills can be most effectively developed using English linguistic landscapes?**
    - Speaking skills
    - Writing skills
    - Listening skills
    - Reading skills
    - Other…
19. **Which language skills can be most effectively developed using Hungarian linguistic landscapes?**
    - Speaking skills

- Writing skills
- Listening skills
- Reading skills
- Other…

20. Which language skills can be most effectively developed using Ukrainian linguistic landscapes?

- Speaking skills
- Writing skills
- Listening skills
- Reading skills
- Other…

21. Does the social status of a language in the region influence students' language learning, (for example, do students feel a greater need to learn English due to its global presence, Hungarian due to its regional use, or Ukrainian because of its official language status)?

- Yes
- No

22. Are there any difficulties in using the local linguistic landscape to teach a particular language, for example, there is a lack of Ukrainian, Hungarian language sources, or is English excessively dominant?

- Yes
- No

23. Do students experience confusion due to the simultaneous use of multilingual landscapes?

- Yes
- No

24. If so, which language do you think causes the greatest difficulty in their understanding?

- English as a foreign language
- Hungarian as a foreign language
- Ukrainian as a foreign language

25. Do you teach foreign language (English, Hungarian, Ukrainian) at the language courses, in private lessons, etc?

- Yes

- No

26. How do you assess the impact of linguistic landscape observations on student learning outcomes?

a) Through formal assessments

b) Informally (observations, feedback)

c) I do not assess this

d) Other...

27. In your experience, do students demonstrate a better understanding of language when they see it used in context within their environment?

a) Strongly agree

b) Agree

c) Neutral

d) Disagree

e) Strongly disagree

28. What are the potential challenges or limitations of using the linguistic landscape in teaching? (open-ended question)

29. What challenges, if any, have you faced when incorporating linguistic landscape elements in your teaching?

a) Lack of resources

b) Time constraints

c) Lack of student interest

d) I have not faced any challenges

e) Other...

30. Do you believe that integrating the linguistic landscape into your curriculum makes learning more relevant to students' lives?

a) Strongly agree

b) Agree

c) Neutral

d) Disagree

e) Strongly disagree

31. How often do you encourage students to observe their environment for linguistic resources as part of their learning experience?

a) Very often

b) Often

c) Sometimes

d)Rarely

e)Never

32. Have you used specific activities or projects centered on the linguistic landscape (e.g., community walks)?

- Yes
- No
- Partially

33. Do you think the local linguistic landscape reflects the diversity of your student population?

a)Yes, very well

b)Yes, somewhat

c)No, not really

d)No, not at all

34. Do you feel your school or institution provides sufficient support for incorporating real-world resources like the linguistic landscape into teaching?

- Yes
- No
- Partially

35. Do you have any suggestions for improving the linguistic landscape in our college for effective foreign language learning?

Appendix 2

Questionnaire for students

1. **Choose your age:**
   - 17-20
   - 20-30
   - 30-40
2. **Gender:**
   - male
   - female
3. **Your major is:**
   - History and social sciences
   - Mathematics and informatics
   - Biology and Chemistry

- Geography and tourism
- Philology (English language and literature)
- Philology (Hungarian language and literature)
- Philology (Ukrainian language and literarture)
- Accounting and auditing
- Other...

4. **You are (academic standing):**
    - 1st year student
    - 2nd year student
    - 3rd year student
    - 4th year student
    - 1st year major student
    - 2nd year major student
5. **Your native language is:**
    - Ukrainian
    - Hungarian
    - Other...
6. **Foreign language (Target Language) you are learning:**
    - Ukrainian
    - Hungarian
    - English
    - Other...
7. **How long have you been learning a foreign language?**
    - a few months
    - less than 1 year
    - more than 1 year
    - since I started studying at college
8. **Please select the photos that depict examples of the Linguistic Landscape.**

1. 

2. 

3. 

4. 

5. 

6. 
100% BEEF
TEXAS BURGER
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7. 
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9. **How well do you understand the concept of linguistic landscape (1-5)?**

   1 - do not understand at all

   5 - very well

10. **How would you define or describe the linguistic landscape? (open-ended question)**

11. **How often do you notice written language (like signs, advertisements, etc.) in your daily environment?**

    a) Very often

b)Often

c) Sometimes

d)Rarely

e)Never

12. How frequently do you engage with bilingual or multilingual signs?

a) Very frequently

b)Frequently

c) Occasionally

d)Rarely

e)Never

13. In your community, which language do you see the most frequently?

a) Hungarian

b)Ukrainian

c) English

14. **Which language appears most frequently in the linguistic landscape of your educational institution?**

- English
- Ukrainian
- Hungarian
- They appear roughly equally

15. How does the global spread of English influence its presence in your region's linguistic landscape?

- It does not influence at all
- English is very widespread
- English appears rarely
- English is only found in certain places

16. What unique characteristics of the Hungarian language appear in linguistic landscapes?

- No unique characteristics appear
- Complex grammar structure, specific vocabulary, long words
- Only simple grammar
- Only simple vocabulary
- Other

17. **Which linguistic landscape elements contribute to the promotion and preservation of the Ukrainian language?**
    - There are no such elements
    - Ukrainian-language signs, advertisements, announcements, cultural events
    - Only advertisements
    - Only commercials
    - Other...
18. **Which foreign language signs are the most understandable for you in public spaces?**
    - English
    - Hungarian
    - Ukrainian
    - None
19. **Do you find it easier to remember English, Hungarian, or Ukrainian words because you frequently see them in your environment?**
    - English words are easier to remember
    - Hungarian words are easier to remember
    - Ukrainian words are easier to remember
    - This has no effect on my memory
20. **Which foreign language seems the most difficult to understand in the urban environment?**
    - English
    - Hungarian
    - Ukrainian
    - None
21. **What difficulties do you encounter in understanding foreign languages when interpreting the linguistic landscape?**
    - Complex grammar
    - Unknown words
    - Inappropriate context
    - Other...
22. **Have you ever tried using words or expressions from a foreign language, which you encountered in the linguistic landscape, in your speech or writing?**
    - Yes, often

- Sometimes
- Rarely
- Never

23. In your opinion, at what level you speak the following languages?

1. Ukrainian
2. Hungarian
3. English

A1-C2

24. Do you think that real examples of linguistic landscapes (such as signs, advertisements, menus) can be useful for language learning at school/university?

- Yes
- No
- Partially

25. From what sources do you most frequently perceive English linguistic landscapes?

- Social media platforms (e.g., Instagram, Twitter, YouTube)
- Movies and TV shows
- Online articles and news websites
- English TV channels and radio stations
- Other...

26. From what sources do you most frequently perceive Hungarian linguistic landscapes?

- Street signs and advertisements in Hungarian-speaking areas
- Hungarian websites and news portals
- Hungarian TV channels and radio stations
- Conversations with native speakers
- Other...

27. From what sources do you most frequently perceive Ukrainian linguistic landscapes?

- Ukrainian TV channels and news media
- Public signage and billboards in Ukraine
- Ukrainian literature and online publications
- Communication with native speakers in everyday situations

- Other...

28. **Have you ever felt confused or frustrated by language barriers in your community?**
    - Yes
    - No
29. **Do the languages you see in your environment influence your interest in learning them?**
    a) Yes, greatly
    b) Yes, somewhat
    c) No, not really
    d) No, not at all
30. **Does the presence of foreign language signage motivate you to learn that language?**
    - Yes, greatly
    - Yes, somewhat
    - No, not really
    - No, not at all
31. **When you encounter a language, you are unfamiliar with, how do you usually respond?**
    a) Ignore it
    b) Try to figure it out
    c) Ask someone
    d) Look it up
32. **How important do you find the linguistic landscape (signs, billboards, etc.) is in learning a new language?** (1 – not important; 5 – very important)
33. **Have you ever learned new vocabulary from signage in your environment?**
    - Yes
    - No
34. **In your opinion, does exposure to multiple languages in your environment worsen your understanding of your primary language?**
    a) Yes, significantly
    b) Yes, somewhat
    c) Sometimes it seems to be confusing
    d) No impact

e) Other….

35. **Have you participated in language learning activities that include the linguistic landscape (e.g. tours)?**
    - Yes
    - No
36. **How effective do you find learning through real-world examples (like signs) compared to traditional classroom methods?**

    a) Much more effective

    b) More effective

    c) About the same

    d) Less effective

    e) Much less effective
37. **Your evaluation of the linguistic landscape of your college:**

    A. Very good

    B. Good

    C. Okay/Average

    D. Poor

    E. Very poor
38. **How clear and well-structured are the bilingual or multilingual signs in the college?**
    - The signs are generally very clear and easy to understand. The language is simple, and the layout is logical.
    - Some signs are good, but others have small font sizes or awkward translations, making them difficult to read.
    - Many of the signs are confusing. The translations don't seem accurate, and the layout is disorganized.
    - The signs are inconsistent. Some are bilingual, and others are not. This causes confusion.
    - The signs are very poor. They are very hard to read, and seem to be translated very badly.
    - I haven't noticed many bilingual or multilingual signs.
39. **Do you have any suggestions for improving the linguistic landscape for effective foreign language learning at our college? (open-ended question)**
40. **Would you like to have more language resources available in your environment (like public signage, educational materials, etc.)?**

a) Yes, very much

b) Yes, somewhat

c) No, it's fine as it is

41. Do you believe that understanding the linguistic landscape can positively impact your academic performance in language learning?

a) Strongly agree

b) Agree

c) Neutral

d) Disagree

e) Strongly disagree

Appendix 3

Photos of LL collected at Rakoczi Ferenc II Transcarpathian Hungarian College of Higher Education and its surroundings (i.e. Sechenyi Street, Heroes Square, Stefanyk Street, Bohdan Khmelnytskyi Street, and Mukachivska Street)

Figure 1. Building names in both Ukrainian-Hungarian languages

Figure 2. English bottom-up linguistic landscape

Figure 3. Ukrainian-English advertisement of the cafe

Figure 4. Hungarian-Ukrainian name of the pharmacy

Figure 5. Ukrainian-English announcement collected at the college.

Figure 6. English announcement found at the college

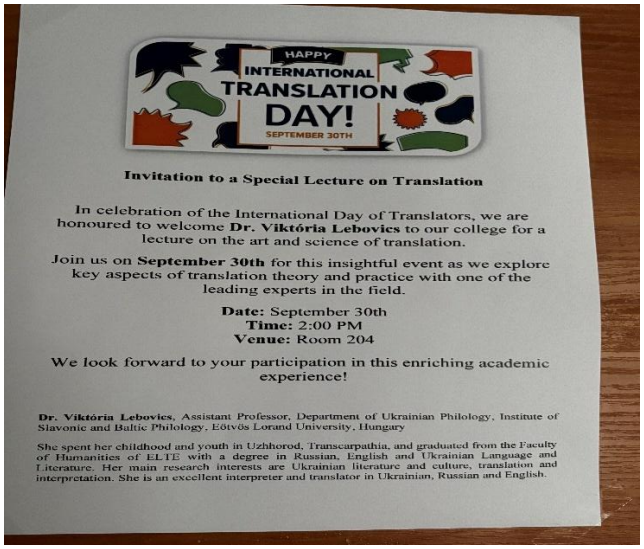
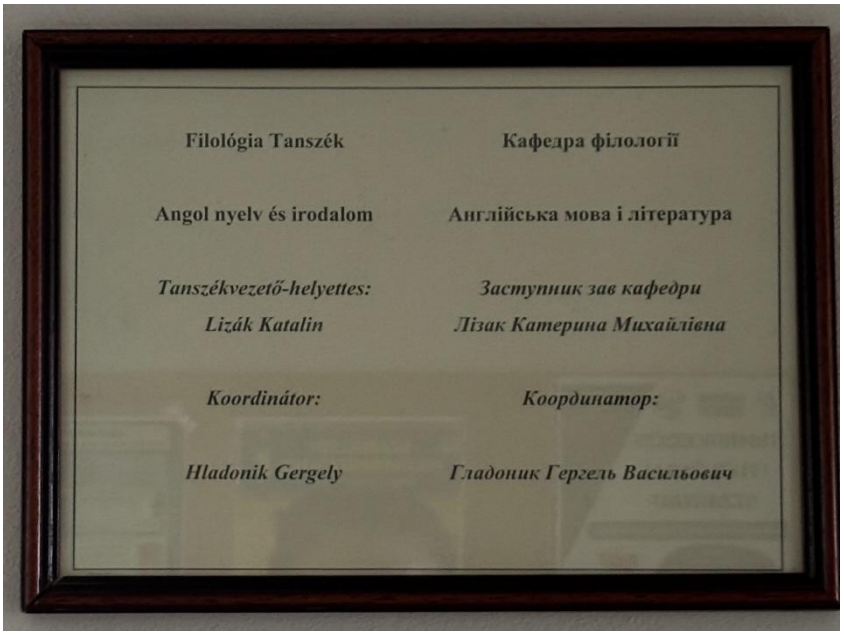


Figure 7. Hungarian-Ukrainian name of the department



More photos on LL of the college's surroundings are available at:

https://drive.google.com/drive/folders/1eLxG5PUn2t0Q1aAh-gF9rn9Mj7dXjsAV?usp=drive_link

Photos on LL collected at Rakoczi Ferenc II Transcarpathian Hungarian College of Higher Education are available at the following link:

https://drive.google.com/drive/folders/1k-9-HNF7fXpppgbC8G6ztrL98tjijY9h?usp=sharing

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ПОЯСНЮВАЛЬНА ЗАПИСКА

Я, Цонинець Христина Олексіївна, підтверджую, що користувалась ChatGPT (https://chat.openai.com/) для редагування тексту та перевірки помилок у власній роботі. Я завантажила свою роботу в повному обсязі і ввела наступні дані 12 травня 2025 року:

Покращення академічного стилю та правильності мови, включаючи граматичні структури, пунктуацію та лексику.

Отримані таким чином дані були використані для доопрацювання та перероблення тексту з метою отримання кінцевого варіанту роботи.

Цонинець Христина Олексіївна _____