UNIVERSITI TEKNOLOGI MARA

THE LINGUISTIC LANDSCAPE OF TOURIST SPACES IN PERAK, MALAYSIA: POLICY, PRACTICE, AND PUBLIC PERCEPTIONS

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THE LINGUISTIC LANDSCAPE OF TOURIST SPACES IN PERAK, MALAYSIA: POLICY, PRACTICE, AND PUBLIC PERCEPTIONS

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ABSTRACT

This study was conducted to examine the linguistic landscape (LL) of tourist spaces in Perak, Malaysia, focusing on the consistencies between policy, actual practice and public's perceptions on the language used on signs. Building on the definition of LL by Landry and Bourhis (1997), the research examined how signs in tourist sites reflect sociolinguistic dynamics and policy implementation. A mixed-methods approach was employed, integrating visual documentation of 1,039 public signs across three selected tourist sites (Pulau Pangkor, Lost World of Tambun, and Teluk Batik), with policy document analysis, semi-structured interviews with local authorities and sign creators, and survey questionnaires completed by 714 respondents. The analysis was framed using Trumper-Hecht's (2010) three dimensions of space (spatial, conceived, and lived), complemented by additional frameworks examining sign authorship, code preference, text composition, and language use patterns across the three survey sites. Findings revealed that private signs dominated across all three sites, with monolingual signs comprising approximately 70% of the total dataset, and Bahasa Melayu (BM) and English emerging as the dominant languages. Mutual translation was the most prevalent form of text composition, and BM was generally prioritised in terms of placement and font size at Pulau Pangkor and Teluk Batik, reflecting both policy compliance and BM's status as the official language. A key conceptual finding of this study was the distinction between BM operating as a 'required code' (fulfilling mandatory policy obligations) and as a 'preferred code' (reflecting genuine individual preference or community choice). This distinction highlights the complex motivations underlying signage construction in Malaysian tourist spaces. Regarding adherence of policy, Pulau Pangkor and Teluk Batik demonstrated greater consistency with the stipulated language policy, whereas Lost World of Tambun exhibited stronger English dominance and lower compliance, driven by economic motivations and international appeal as reported by sign creators and local authorities. This indicates that despite existing policies governing outdoor signs, inconsistencies in actual practices remain evident. Furthermore, survey responses revealed a perception-practice gap, in which most respondents expressed a strong preference for multilingual signs, particularly BM-English combinations, yet the visual data demonstrated a predominance of monolingual signs. This highlights a mismatch between public expectations and actual practices. As an applied contribution, this study proposes the Tourist Signage Multilingual Guideline (TSMG), a practical guideline designed to address identified gaps in policy compliance and promote inclusive, accessible language practices in Malaysian tourist spaces. By extending the theoretical and methodological scope of LL research to tourism contexts in Malaysia, this study broadens the analytical reach of multilingual signs inquiry in Southeast Asia and demonstrates that language policy and actual practice remain in tension even in a highly regulated multilingual context.

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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This chapter begins with a brief introduction on the linguistic situation in Malaysia, followed by the background of study. It also includes the statement of problem, research objectives, research questions, significance of the study, limitations of the study, theoretical framework, and definition of terms.

1.2 Linguistic Situation in Malaysia

The current Malaysian linguistic scenario is complex and unique as it comprises multiple languages resulting from colonisation by different countries. English language arrived with British imperial rule that lasted until independence back in 1957, which was the starting point of multilingualism and ethnic pluralism (Albury, 2021). Exposure to other languages (other than English) came with the waves of Chinese and Indian migration in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. This has resulted in Malaysia having a unique linguistic situation, where language is never a barrier.

The multilingual character of Malaysia stems from its diverse ethnic composition. According to the Department of Statistics Malaysia (2025), the nation's demographic consists of a Malay majority (58.2%), followed by Chinese (22.2%), other Bumiputera groups (12.3%), Indians (6.5%), and various smaller minority communities including Punjabis, Sindhi, and Gujaratis (0.8%). The term 'Bumiputera' encompasses both the Malay population and indigenous groups, with the latter contributing significantly to Malaysia's linguistic richness, particularly in East Malaysia. Sarawak hosts forty distinct sub-ethnic groups, including the Melanaus, Ibans, Dayaks, and Bidayuh, each maintaining their indigenous languages alongside the national language (Bahasa Melayu (BM henceforth) and English. As for Sabah, it consists of thirty-two ethnic groups, notably the Kadazan-Dusun, Bajau, and Murut communities which

contribute their distinctive linguistic varieties to the national tapestry. Due to this diversity, renowned for its mosaic of languages which has resulted in the creation of multilingual speakers among Malaysians.

Within this ethnolinguistically dynamic environment, Malaysians are aware of the use of BM as the country's national and official language, as proclaimed in Article 152 of the Malaysian Constitution. BM is the language used by individuals and groups, and the language advocated in the public and private institutions as well as in all public domains and activities including administrations, business, education, media, and justice (Manan et al., 2015). Besides BM, English is also another prominent language in Malaysia and has become the country's second language resulting from the British colonisation (Ain Nadzimah & Chan, 2003). The use of English has covered several formal and informal domains; especially in serving the official language in administration, as well as used in courts and education (David & Govindasamy, 2003). English was widely used in various settings and remained as the official language in some states such as Sabah and Sarawak, even after years of independence in 1957 (Ain Nadzimah & Chan, 2003). Even though English is not the country's national language, it has become very influential and used for variety of functions, especially in economic sectors. This has made English as the second preferred language, including for inter-ethnic communication among Malaysians.

This balanced approach to language use, which maintains BM's official primacy while acknowledging English's practical utility, has significantly contributed to Malaysia's appeal as a tourist destination. Tourism consistently ranks among the country's largest economic sectors, with the nation's multilingual capabilities enhancing its reputation as one of the Southeast Asia's tourist-friendly destinations. The multilingual competence of local populations, particularly in service sectors, creates a welcoming environment for international travellers. The dynamic interplay between local languages and international communication needs has created unique linguistic ecosystems in tourist areas, making Malaysia an ideal site for tourist destination.

The tourism industry has further elevated the status of English in Malaysia, as it serves as the primary language for international communication and tourism services. Heller et al. (2014) mentioned that tourism creates spaces where language becomes both a marker of authenticity and a commodity that facilitates economic transactions. In Malaysia's tourism sector, English often functions as a lingua franca that bridges

communication gaps between local service providers and international visitors. This economic imperative has reinforced English's prominence in tourist-oriented business, from hospitality and transportation to retail and entertainment, creating what Thurlow and Jaworski (2011) describe as "tourism sociolinguistic regimes" where certain languages gain privileged status based on their economic utility.

Although BM and English are highly spoken and used in variety of discourses, especially in tourism context, BM enjoys a privileged position, followed with English occupying the second position (Manan et al., 2015). This can also be seen in the presentation of information in public display such as in signage and other forms of advertisement. It is crucial to note that signs do play a crucial role in channelling and conveying messages to assist the public with information needed (Hazaea, Al-Sofi & Alfaifi, 2024). Due to the multi-ethnic composition in Malaysia, the presence of minority languages on signs can still be found which form the unique construction of textual display (Wang & Xu, 2018). Even though public spaces provide flexibility of language exposure, like elsewhere, Malaysian signage is regulated by the government policy. It has been stipulated in the Malaysian Local by-laws (Undang-Undang Kecil Majlis Perbandaran) and the National Language Act (Akta Bahasa Kebangsaan) that BM is mandatory in all public and private signage. Even if BM is used in conjunction with other languages, it must be prioritised and be more prominent than any other languages in all aspects. Nevertheless, the language choice for public display is also predetermined by other factors that influence the construction of language(s) such as identity, local demography, political economy, and ideology (Blackwood, 2010; Gorter, 2006; Lanza & Woldermariam, 2009; Shohamy, 2015). Therefore, it is interesting to see how language(s) is constructed and visually displayed in Malaysia, especially in the context of multilingualism, which refer to the study of linguistic landscape.

1.3 Background of the Study

Linguistic landscape (LL) is known to be the analysis of the written form of languages on public signs in a particular territory (Gorter, 2006). It is a recent linguistic method that explains the choice of language on public signs (Backhaus, 2007; Gorter, 2006). Gorter (2006) highlighted human lives are very much connected to signs and it is through language that the information is transmitted through displays on shops

windows, office notices, posters, banners, business signs, traffic signs and so forth. LL is a study that investigates the content of publicly visible signs known as 'written form' of languages in public space (Cenoz & Gorter, 2006).

Linguistic Landscape studies are considered a sub-field of both sociolinguistic and applied linguistics (Cenoz & Gorter, 2010). It has emerged to be an area of study which has gained attention from researchers around the world to analyse the written information displayed signs. LL was first defined by Landry and Bourhis (1997, p.25) as "…the language of public road signs, advertising billboards, street names, place names, commercial shop signs, and public signs on government buildings combines to form the linguistic landscape of a given territory, region, or urban agglomeration". This definition has been acknowledged and utilised by numerous scholars. Based on Landry and Bourhis's (1997) definition of LL, scholars have broadened the scope of LL by including other views and aspects that are visible in public space. Shohamy and Waksman (2009) expanded the definition in terms of 'object' by stating that the most unique feature of LL is that it applies to the text presented and shown in the public space. Pavlenko (2010) views the expansion of the definition to be more wide-ranging, as there are no restrictions on the selection and analysis of text or known as 'linguistic units'. De Klerk and Wiley (2010) have further broadened the concept of LL in which the linguistic snippet has been applied to product packaging and print material.

Gorter (2006) has also provided his outlook on LL where he further clarifies that LL represents the entity of all languages spoken in a particular area and how the language is represented in public spaces. Shohamy and Waksman (2009) also posited that LL can be influenced by other factors, which include all possible discourses or interactions that exist in the context of the public spaces displayed. These extended definitions have allowed researchers to have greater flexibility on the selection of various texts that could be found in a given geographical area. From all the viewpoints given on LL, it is fascinating to see how LL provides opportunity for linguistic elements to be brought further for exploration. Thus, it can be interpreted that LL is not a study that investigates only linguistic units per se but rather offers variety of other aspects such as who initiates, creates, places, and reads the signs (Marten, Van Mensel & Gorter, 2012). These aspects are significant to be observed and investigated further by researchers.

The study of LL has been explored and interpreted in numerous discourses and fields (Hoffman, 2017). As such, recently, studies on the interplay between LL and tourism has garnered interest among researchers. Hamdiyah and Arts (2019) stated that tourism is progressively causative to the LL studies, which affords useful information on the role of language. This is due to the construction of the LL of tourist sites which is often driven by business and tourist demand. It is believed that the construction of tourist spaces depends highly on the LL of the investigated area (Bruyel-Olmedo & Juan-Garau, 2009; Jaworski, 2010; Moriarty, 2015) in which tourism activities are interrelated with the LL (Shang, 2018 cited in Lu, Li, & Xu, 2020). The existence of various holiday products, marketing segments as well as tourist profiles and motivations, has led this researcher to explore and reveal the language used on signs that help to shape the distinct tourist spots in Malaysia. Furthermore, tourist spaces are complex sites of language contact and the use of language for tourism promotion is an essential source of information for potential tourists. By conducting LL studies in relation to tourism, it helps people to understand how language and tourism are connected, as well as how social point of view and other identities in tourism are presented (Thongtong, 2016).

Tourist space provides an appealing research site as the linguistic elements found on the signage are more diversified due to the high level of tourism development (Lu et al., 2020). However, the textual form is said to be viewed as the 'normal coded text' surrounding the environment (Abdullah, 2012). This 'normal coded text' shown on signs is considered to have no other major purposes rather than the informational function, which is typically ignored by readers. Abdullah further claimed that people seem to take the linguistic elements lightly without realising that it possesses more significance than that is associated to them. It is imperative to note that exposure towards the linguistic elements is not only meant to show the realities of language use, but also "a window to see the tension between practices, beliefs and managements which are practiced by the multilingual society" (Wang & Xu, 2018, p.106). Hence, it is important for this study to investigate signage, particularly in tourist sites to examine the in-depth reality of the sociolinguistic setting available in Malaysia.

Since the tourism sector is known to be the third-largest contributor to Malaysia's economic revenue (Statista, 2020), the role of signage within the industry plays an important role. In recent years, the industry has experienced significant growth

by the remarkable influx of tourists from all over the world. This situation has encouraged the government to promote Malaysia as a top tourist destination in the global market. Hirschmann (2020) mentioned in one of her articles published on the Statista website that the initiative of "Visit Truly Asia Malaysia 2020" was launched in the hope of meeting the ambitious goals of 30 million visitors and 100 billion Malaysian tourist receipts by 2020. However, the desired goal failed to achieve its objective due to the recent challenges brought by the COVID-19 pandemic. The aftermath of the pandemic has resulted in doldrums towards the tourism industry where most activities and borders were shuttered, causing massive revenue losses. Although the pandemic has severely impacted the tourism sector, the presence of written signs in the tourist landscape remains to be significant in the long run, especially for economic and social repercussions that aid in the country's economic recovery (Nenotek et al., 2025).

The unique construction of LL within the tourist spaces plays an essential role in tourism development. Not only does it provide something unique and authentic for first-time tourists (Kallen, 2009) but also helps to strengthen the tourism environment and the image of the tourist sites. The construction of LL is built upon many aspects that are regarded as part of the sign-making process: sign creators, readers, and policy makers (Kandel, 2019; Spolsky, 2009). These aspects are known to be the driving force behind the LL (Lu et al., 2020). The involvement of these elements contributes towards the interpretation of the whole formation of LL which should be taken into consideration when analysing the LL (Huebner, 2006). LL should not be confined to the description of what is seen on the surface; however, it needs to be viewed more holistically since it reveals information on the people, the languages spoken, the language preferences, and the official or de facto language policies that are adhered in the neighbourhood, city, or even country (Kandel, 2019). Therefore, overall planning of LL should be explored further to provide a complete interpretation of the LL of tourist sites from which to study the physical representation, the policy as well as the perception towards the selected local tourist destinations.

The current situation has sparked the researcher's interest to explore the linguistic aspects in terms of types and features, focusing on several tourist areas. This study also looks into the language policy and practices, as emphasised by Cenoz and Gorter (2006, p.68), "the study of LL can provide information on the differences between the official language policy that can be reflected in top-down signs such as

street names or names of official buildings and the impact of policy in individuals as reflected in bottom-up signs such as shop names or street posters". In terms of the language policy for advertisement, the Malaysian Local Council by-laws has stipulated that BM is required on all public and private signboards. However, the linguistic situation in Malaysia is known to be complex, with numerous linguistic varieties coexisting; BM as Malaysia's national language, English as the international language, Chinese, including so-called dialects, other ethnic languages such as Tamil, and a plethora of other foreign languages. Although official policies have made BM a prominent language in linguistic practices particularly on signs, most observations have revealed that the policies have not been fully implemented. This has prompted the researcher to analyse language policy as it helps to comprehend how official policies are put forth by authorities, notably on public signs and explains how policies are experienced and carried out at the bottom-up level by the community of the selected tourist sites.

The study also considers another important element, which involves the public's perception. According to Ben Said (2010), one of the ways that LL can be explored is by looking at how diverse society process and encounters languages through signs. This is due to the fact that the exposed language(s) in public spaces would certainly influence the reader's perception (Cenoz & Gorter, 2006). It is therefore important for this study to investigate the public's perceptions regarding the LL in Malaysia tourist sites as perception is believed to be crucial when shaping the LL (Kallen, 2009). This study aims to develop a new research area related to LL, particularly in the Malaysian context.

1.4 Statement of Problem

Despite the growing body of LL research globally, a significant scholarly gap persists in the Malaysian context, particularly within tourist spaces. Existing LL studies have covered a wide range of settings, from urban commercial districts to educational contexts. However, the critical intersection of LL, language policy, and tourism in Malaysia remains largely unexplored. More critically, existing studies in this area have yet to triangulate multiple data sources such as visual sign analysis, policy documents, sign creator perspectives, and public perceptions within a single, multi-site framework. This fragmented approach limits the depth of understanding of how language is

constructed, regulated, and experienced in Malaysian tourist destinations. It is this unresolved gap that the present study seeks to address.

The growing interplay between L and tourism demonstrates the field's scholarly relevance. Studies conducted in diverse geographical contexts have yielded important insights into how language choices in tourist spaces reflect ideological, economic, and sociolinguistic forces. For instance, Moriarty (2014) examined the tourist town of Dingle, Ireland, and found that multilingual signs were strategically deployed to attract tourists, often prioritising economic interests over language policy and linguistic authenticity. Similarly, Kallen (2009) demonstrated how the Irish language was commodified in tourist spaces, functioning symbolically rather than communicatively. In Asia, Vivas-Peraza (2020) documented the dominance of English in Thai tourist attractions, where local languages were relegated to secondary status. These studies collectively point to a consistent tension between official language policies and actual signage practices in tourist spaces, a tension that has not been critically examined in the Malaysian context.

Within Malaysia, LL research has focused primarily on urban commercial settings and has rarely extended to designated tourist destinations. While scholars such as Anuarudin (2017) and Beh (2017) have examined language policy compliance in Malaysian public spaces, their studies did not focus specifically on tourist sites, nor did they incorporate the full range of actors (policy makers, sign creators, and readers), whose combined perspectives are necessary to construct a comprehensive understanding of the LL dynamics. The investigation of LL specifically in Perak's tourist spaces therefore represents a clear and significant gap in the existing literature.

A further methodological limitation in the LL field is the predominant reliance on visual data alone. As Ben Said (2010) and Shohamy (2015) have argued, restricting analysis to photographed signs overlooks the human dimensions of the LL, specifically the motivations of those who produce signs, and the perceptions of those who encounter them. Although a number of LL studies have begun to incorporate interviews or surveys as supplementary data sources (Lu et al., 2020; Manan et al., 2015), multidimensional triangulation that integrates visual data, policy document analysis, sign creator interviews, and public perception surveys remains uncommon, particularly in the Malaysian tourism context.

The perspectives of sign creators, in particular, remain underrepresented in LL literature. While some studies have examined sign creator motivations in other contexts (Al-Athwary, 2012; ALHyari & Hamdan, 2019; Da Silva, 2017b; Sutthinaraphan, 2019), evidence on how and why signs are created specifically within Malaysian tourist spaces remains limited. Understanding the motivations and decision-making processes of sign creators is essential, as their choices directly shape the LL encountered by tourists. The inclusion of sign creators as interview participants in this study therefore addresses both a thematic and methodological gap that existing Malaysian LL research, particularly in tourist contexts, has not yet adequately resolved.

A further concern is the policy-practice gap evident in Malaysian public spaces. Although the National Language Act and Local Council by-laws stipulate that BM must be given prominence on all public and private signs, existing studies indicate that these regulations have not been consistently implemented (Anuarudin, 2017; Ariffin et al., 2018). For instance, Beh's (2017) examination of the LL in George Town, Penang, revealed a significant discrepancy between official language policies and actual practices, particularly in bottom-up, commercially driven signs. However, research has yet to investigate if similar patterns exist in Perak's tourist sites, or if local councils enforce policy consistently across these sites.

In light of these gaps, there is a clear need for a study that examines the LL of Malaysian tourist spaces comprehensively and systematically. Drawing on Wang's (2015) guiding questions regarding what contributes to the formation of LL, how languages are used and regulated in a given place, and how people respond to the multilingual environment, this study frames four specific research objectives to address the identified gaps. Specifically, Wang's first question regarding LL formation guides RQ1 and RQ2, which examine the types and linguistic features of signs across three selected tourist sites in Perak: Pulau Pangkor, Lost World of Tambun, and Teluk Batik. Additionally, the inquiry into language usage and regulation informs RQ3 by investigating the consistency between stipulated language policies and actual practices. Lastly, the third question regarding public response underpins RQ4, which explores public's perceptions of the LL displayed across these sites. In doing so, this study seeks to bridge the gap between descriptive LL documentation and the deeper sociolinguistic and policy dimensions that shape language display in Malaysian tourist spaces.

1.5 Research Objectives

In addressing the gap raised in the statement of problem above, the general purpose of this study is to investigate how the LL of the selected tourist sites in Perak is represented and regulated, as well as to examine the perceptions of public (e.g., local or foreign tourists, expatriates) regarding the LL. Specifically, the study aims to achieve the following objectives:

1. To identify the types of linguistic landscape found in the selected tourist sites in Perak.
2. To identify the linguistic features of the linguistic landscape in the selected tourist sites in Perak.
3. To investigate the consistency between actual practice and stipulated language policies pertaining to the linguistic landscape of selected tourist sites in Perak.
4. To explore the public's perceptions of the linguistic landscape displayed in the selected tourist sites in Perak.

1.6 Research Questions

This study seeks to answer the following research questions:

RQ 1. What are the types of linguistic landscape found in the selected tourist sites in Perak?

RQ 2. How are the linguistic features of the linguistic landscape displayed in the selected tourist sites in Perak?

RQ 3. To what extent do actual practices align with stipulated language policies in the linguistic landscape of selected tourist sites in Perak?

RQ 4. What is the public's perception of the linguistic landscape displayed in the selected tourist sites in Perak?

1.7 Significance of the Study

The findings of the present study would bring significance and great value towards exploratory study, especially in LL area. It will provide significant data towards developing a clear understanding of how linguistic elements are presented which can be brought further for exploration and interpretation. It is hoped that this study will provide substantial data and information for researchers, instructors and learners, tourism industry as well as policy makers to further understand the use of languages in public space, the consistency between stipulated language policies and actual practice, and the sociolinguistic community examined.

Firstly, this study provides a contribution towards the language and linguistics field, specifically in the field of sociolinguistics. With its rich empirical data, it offers insights for researchers to explore possible extensions for future approaches or supplementary tools for research, innovative sources of data, as well as reflections on different views and theoretical ideas. It is hoped this study will help to deepen researchers' understanding and knowledge on the notion of LL in a variety of discourses. Gorter (2013) clarified that the results of LL research contribute to new ideas and perspectives on current issues such as multilingualism, minority languages, semiotics, language policy, and globalisation. This remains highly relevant as recent works continue to demonstrate the field's expanding significance and contribution. Hence, this study can be used as a reference for other researchers who have interest in analysing similar linguistic contexts.

Another contribution this study offers is to the field of education. Through the study of languages on signs in Perak's tourist spaces, syllabus and curriculum developers for subjects such as English language, sociolinguistics, and tourism communication could produce materials and resources that are more authentic and related to the actual practice of language in the public space. Language instructors will be able to use the multilingual signs documented in this study to teach language awareness, code preference, and the relationship between language policy and practice in real-world contexts. As highlighted by Kramsch (2006), using authentic texts from signs for teaching enables learners to gain knowledge of not only language, but also critical thinking, literacy, and the interpretation of symbolic systems. This view is further supported by Shohamy and Waksman (2009), who affirmed that LL serves as a

powerful tool in education and meaningful language learning. Indeed, applying the authentic signage data from this study as resource material in the classroom would benefit both learners and instructors in the teaching and learning process.

The role of LL in education can be further extended to second language acquisition (SLA). According to Cenoz and Gorter (2008), LL has the potential to be used as a source of input in SLA and the development of pragmatic competence. Through written language in public spaces, the LL possesses both symbolic and informative functions, offering a multimodal and multilingual combination of printed text and visual content. The multilingual signs found across the three tourist sites in this study provide precisely the kind of authentic, contextualised input. Through these features, this study contributes not only to those in the language field, but also to those teaching and developing courses in areas such as tourism communication, intercultural competence, and critical language awareness.

This study also offers insights for the government as well as the tourism sector in improving the current LL of the existing tourist spaces. Besides that, it also provides direction in developing more inclusive and tourist-friendly public spaces. This is crucial as Kallen (2009) claims that tourists always struggle with the issue of feeling insecure whenever they encounter an 'incomprehensible code' or known as the foreign language. This poses challenges to tourists and may affect their sense of security. Thus, it is important to construct a dynamic and balanced LL, as this plays a vital role in enhancing the overall visitors' experience and encouraging positive behavioural intentions (Dai, 2024). This study also helps to enhance sign creators' awareness of tourists' preferences regarding the different languages used on signs in order to meet the tourists' need. As noted by Maharani et al. (2025), LL serves as a key symbolic resource that directly influences tourists' visual attention and shapes their perception of the destination. Therefore, careful planning of LL is needed which could enhance the overall image and hospitality of tourist sites in Malaysia.

The findings of the present study, in line with Anuarudin (2017), will also bring benefit to the country's language policy makers by providing reliable data on the actual implementation of language use. Although the city councils have laid out specific policies, it is unknown whether these policies are fully complied with in actual practice. This is in line with Shohamy's (2006) claim emphasising that a policy does not necessarily mean it is implemented and practised correctly, since in certain contexts the

use of languages is still in contrast with the policies. It is therefore hoped that this study will serve as a reference for policy makers in developing better solutions and more effective regulations for future implementation.

1.8 Research Limitations

The major concern of this study is to critically analyse the LL of tourist sites available in Perak by looking at the features and different types of signs, the adherence of language policy in actual practice as well as the perceptions of the public. However, investigating the phenomenon of the issue posed several challenges due to certain limitations. The first limitation was in terms of data collection from the selected tourist sites in Perak. This study focused solely on the first top three tourist sites based on information from the 2019 domestic tourism survey conducted by the Department of Statistics Malaysia. Therefore, the findings derived from the data collected cannot be generalised to the entire tourist sites in the state of Perak. The findings are also not representative of the LLs characteristics in other states in Malaysia.

The second limitation is associated with signage policies. It is important to note that legal prescriptions or rules implemented for each city council may differ from one another. As a result, exploring all available sites across different areas in Perak posed a challenge for the researcher. Furthermore, the policies retrieved from relevant websites and semi-structured interviews conducted with local authorities only delineated the policies applicable to the selected survey areas. These policies cannot be generalised as representative of Malaysia's overall signage policies.

Another limitation of this study is related to the sign creators' view towards the LL displayed. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with relevant sign creators to gain in-depth information particularly on why those signs were created as well as to explore their awareness on the stipulated policies. Collecting genuine responses from the sign creators posed a significant challenge, as it was expected that not all sign creators would be approachable or willing to provide responses. This difficulty in accessing and obtaining candid data from respondents is a recognized methodological challenge in sociolinguistic research (Siziba, 2024). Consequently, the researcher anticipated limited responses during the data collection process from the creators' point of view. Furthermore, the findings from these interviews could not be generalized as

representing the practices across all tourist sites in Malaysia, as practices at each site may vary. This non-generalizability is a common and acknowledged limitation in qualitative social science research, where the focus is on deep, contextual understanding rather than statistical representativeness (Gamble, 2025).

Besides the sign creators' view, another limitation of the study is related to public perceptions. It was anticipated that the number of foreign tourists as respondents would be limited due to the study being conducted during the post-pandemic period. Travel restrictions imposed by the country significantly limited the influx of foreigners traveling to Malaysia. Consequently, the study primarily targeted local tourists and expatriates as respondents. Hence, the findings obtained from the questionnaires only represented a limited dataset from the viewpoint of foreign tourists.

1.9 Theoretical Framework

According to Gorter (2013), investigations of the LL require elements from several disciplines and multiple theoretical frameworks, as the field has expanded well beyond its early focus on quantitative sign counting to encompass language policy, sociolinguistics, discourse analysis, and the study of public perception. Understanding the LL of tourist spaces in Perak in relation to both language policy and public perception, therefore, necessitates a comprehensive theoretical framework that clearly defines the context. This allows for a meaningful and systematic analysis of the relationships between the linguistic properties of the signs, the stipulated language policies, and the public perception of the multilingual signs displayed in the selected tourist sites.

The present study draws its primary theoretical grounding from Trumper-Hecht (2010), who extended Lefebvre's (1991) concept of space and reconceptualized the LL as a sociolinguistic-spatial phenomenon. This study also adduces support from other relevant theories and approaches to complement Trumper-Hecht's (2010) framework. Specifically, the frameworks established by Edelman (2010), Huebner (2009), Ben-Rafael et al. (2006), Cenoz and Gorter (2010), Scollon and Scollon (2003), Spolsky and Cooper (1991), and Anuarudin (2017) assisted in integrating the relevant features of the LL, while facilitating the systematic analysis and interpretation of the data collected across the three dimensions of space.

In her study of the LL of mixed cities in Israel, Trumper-Hecht (2010) developed three dimensions of space drawn from Lefebvre's (1991) framework, namely the 'spatial space' (physical dimension), 'conceived space' (political dimension), and 'lived space' (experiential dimension). These three dimensions provide the organising structure for the present study. The *spatial space* addresses the actual, observable distribution of languages on signs, including sign types, authorship, and multilingual composition. The *conceived space* reflects the policy that governs the signage displayed and the *lived space* represents how the LL is perceived and interpreted by the readers who engage with the space.

To operationalise each dimension analytically, this study adapted a set of complementary frameworks, each addressing a specific variable within the broader theoretical structure. For the spatial space, the sign type by Edelman (2010) and the sign categories by Huebner (2009) and Ben-Rafael et al. (2006) were used to classify signs by type and authorship. The linguistic features of multilingual signs were examined using the code preference framework by Scollon and Scollon (2003), the preference model by Spolsky and Cooper (1991), the language features framework by Cenoz and Gorter (2010), and the types of text composition by Anuarudin (2017). Following Trumper-Hecht's (2010) approach, this study utilised these frameworks to analyse and discuss how languages are distributed, arranged, and prioritised across the signs collected from the three selected tourist sites.

For the conceived and lived spaces, this study drew on the approach of Trumper-Hecht (2010) in examining the relationship between policy and practice, as well as the public's perceptions of the LL. Trumper-Hecht's conceived space guided the analysis of policy documents from the relevant local councils, whereas the lived space informed the public's perceptions of and preferences regarding the multilingual signs displayed in the selected tourist sites. By combining and adapting these frameworks within Trumper-Hecht's (2010) three-dimensional spatial framework, this study achieves a more holistic and comprehensive understanding of the LL in Perak's tourist spaces. The frameworks employed in this study are discussed further in Chapter 2. Figure 1.1 presents a visual overview of how these complementary frameworks are integrated within Trumper-Hecht's (2010) framework, mapping each dimension to its corresponding research questions. The full operationalisation of each framework in

relation to the study's data collection and analysis methods is elaborated in Table 3.3 in Chapter 3.

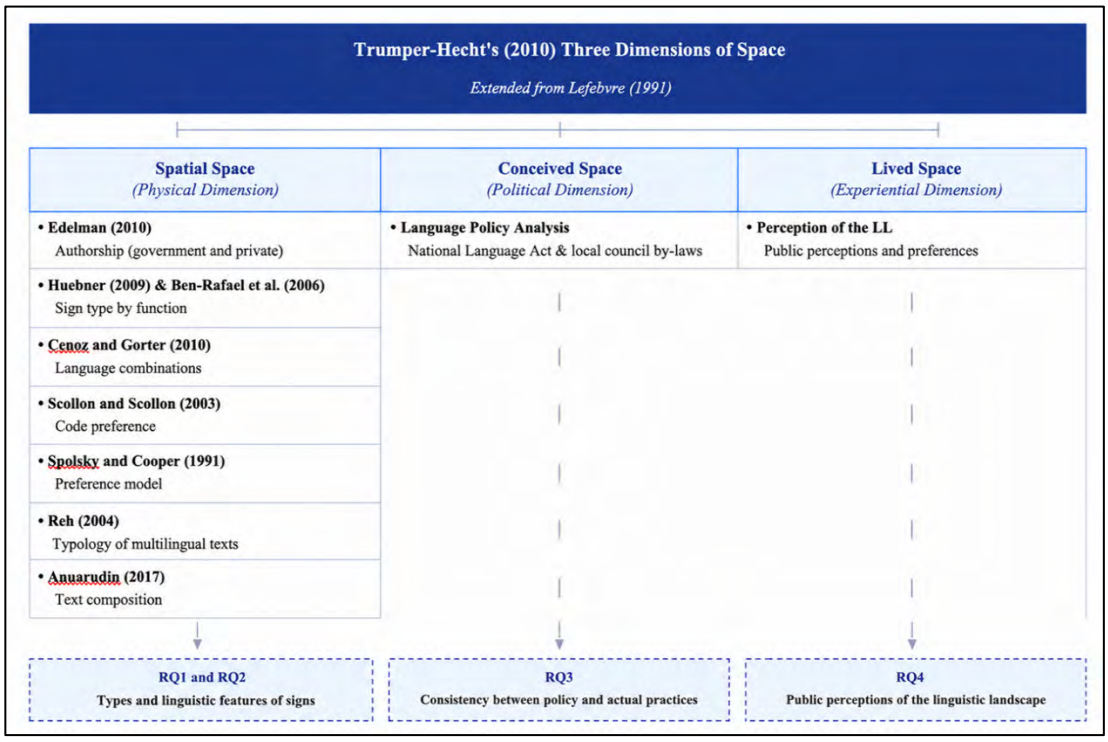

Figure 1.1 Theoretical Framework of the Study (Adapted from Trumper-Hecht, 2010)

1.10 Definition of Terms

To best understand the area of this study, several significant terms used need to be clearly defined to know what LL is within the discourse of tourism.

1.10.1 Linguistic Landscape

Numerous definitions of LL have appeared in the current research area. In the case of this study, it adapts the definition defined by Backhaus (2007, p.66) which states, LL refers to "…any piece of written text within a spatially definable frame". This includes road signs, names of sites, streets, buildings, places, institutions, advertising billboards, as well as commercial shop signs. Gorter (2006) has also widened the scope of the definition where he states that LL is not only words used on signage but also reflects the 'language representation' in public space. The definition seems to be relevant for this study as the language used in tourism space may exist in multilingual

context in which tourists are exposed to a variety of aspects such as language choices, hierarchies of languages, regulations as well as aspects of literacy.

1.10.2 Language Policy

One of the areas that multiple LL analyses have discussed is language policy. According to Shohamy (2006, p.45), language policy is "the primary mechanism for organising, managing and manipulating language behaviours as it consists of decisions made about languages and their uses in society". She further elaborated that with language policy, one can determine how certain languages should be utilised within the society, specifically in the field of LL as well as public signs. Language policies in this study refer to the regulations and policies related to public signage in the selected tourist sites which are in line with the national language policy.

1.10.3 Signs

Signs in the wider sense, as they are understood in the field of LL as well as semiotics, are intended to specify or refer to another item or concept (Scollon & Scollon, 2003, p.3). The symbolic use of signs meets the purpose as an indicator that intend to be conspicuous and easy to read, and this makes signs to have its own function that suited with the context of the LL created. In commercial contexts such as promotions and advertisement, signs frequently appear with the primary purpose of attracting attention to a product, location, or business (Backhaus, 2007; Manan et al., 2015). Furthermore, signs in public sphere are known to be illustrative texts that can be read, photographed, and dissected linguistically and culturally (Gorter, 2006; Shohamy, Ben-Rafael, & Barni, 2010; Shohamy & Gorter, 2009). With reference to the above definitions, sign in this study refers to any written text displayed in public sphere where the objects include road signs, names of sites, streets, buildings, places, institutions, advertising billboards, as well as commercial shop signs. It is believed that these signs are intended to publicise general messages to the public in certain form and function (e.g., instructions, information, warning) to assist or provide information to the readers (tourists).

1.10.4 Monolingual and Multilingual Signs

For this study, monolingual signs refer to signs that are coded with one language. Unlike multilingual signs, it shows information that consists of more than one language. A common definition of multilingualism as quoted by Cenoz (2013), is the use of more than one language or competence in more than one language. This is parallel with Wei's (2000) definition of multilingualism which refers to "the coexistence of more than one language within a community of speakers" (p.7). In the context of this research, multilingual signs can be significant to both tourism providers as well as travellers (Kallen, 2009; Ruzaite, 2017). Language diversity that reflects on signs play an important role and can be used as commodities by multilingual people (Duchene, 2009). Although there are many distinctive interpretations between monolingual and multilingual, this study adopts the description of multilingualism by Cenoz (2013) and Wei (2000). A multilingual sign, in this study, is defined as a sign that consists of more than one language.

1.10.5 Linguistic Features

Linguistic features in this study relate to how languages are presented or portrayed in the LL of certain area. It also includes how the languages are described and laid out in terms of its characteristics, compositions, preferences (size and arrangement) on various signs (Cenoz & Gorter, 2010). Anuarudin (2017) further clarifies that it is important to see how these features are created and arranged to signify language preferences as well as to see their relationship within the stipulated language policy.

1.10.6 Government Signs and Private Signs

Both early and contemporary studies in the field of linguistic landscape have underscored significant disparities between government and private signs. This differentiation aids in comprehending how language usage in public spaces can both reflect and shape societal dynamics. As noted by Landry and Bourhis (1997, pp. 26-27),

government signs, are those issued by public authorities, namely "national agencies, regional, or municipal governments". These include signs in public spaces, public announcements, and street names. Conversely, private signs, are issued by individuals, members of the organization and shop owners, such as shop signs, advertisements, billboards, and personal announcements which exhibit greater diversity. Other scholars have also employed various terms to discuss these two types of signs. For instance, Ben-Rafael et al. (2006) distinguished between government and private signs by using the terms 'top-down' and 'bottom-up'; and Scollon and Scollon (2003) referred to them as 'municipal' and 'commercial' discourses. This study adopts the distinction made by Landry and Bourhis (1997) which a government sign refers to the official signs that are issued or displayed by any government agencies, whereas private sign refers to any non-official signs displayed by private organisations or individuals.

1.10.7 Tourist Spaces

Tourist spaces are complex sites of language contact. Although there are numerous definitions of 'space' that frequently overlap with other concepts, this study adopts the definition established by Jaworski and Thurlow (2010), which conceptualizes space as a 'sense of place' to individuals. Jaworski and Thurlow (2010, p.7) further posit the idea of space as being inevitably bound up with specific geographical locations which we come to know and experience both sensually and intellectually through semiotic framing and various forms of discoursal construal.

Thus, tourist space in this study aligns with a similar conceptualization proposed by Bruyel-Olmedo and Juan-Garau (2009), Jaworski (2010), and Moriarty (2015), in which what is represented through signs in the LL contributes directly to how space is experienced and engaged by visitors. This is because the construction of tourist spaces depends highly on the LL created, as the languages displayed on signs shape the symbolic, cultural, and communicative environment that visitors encounter and navigate (Bruyel-Olmedo & Juan-Garau, 2009; Jaworski, 2010; Moriarty, 2015). For the purposes of this study, tourist space refers specifically to designated recreational tourist attractions that are officially promoted by the relevant state or national tourism authority, receive a significant volume of domestic or international visitors, and are purposefully constructed to serve the leisure, recreational, and communicative needs of

a diverse visitor population. Such spaces include but are not limited to nature-based island destinations, theme parks, beach recreation areas, and heritage sites, alongside other formally recognized tourist attractions where multilingual signs are purposefully displayed to guide, inform, and engage visitors. The signs examined within these spaces include all outdoor, publicly displayed written texts encountered by visitors, encompassing directional signs, informational boards, commercial advertisements, regulatory notices, welcome signs, and identification signs produced by both government and private entities.

Tourist spaces in this study specifically encompass three distinct types of attraction in Perak, namely an island destination represented by Pulau Pangkor, a privately managed theme park represented by the Lost World of Tambun, and a coastal beach recreation area represented by Teluk Batik. These three sites reflect different governance structures, visitor profiles, and sign-production contexts, thereby enabling a systematic examination of how language policy, actual signage practice, and public perception manifest across varied tourist sites.

1.10.8 Actors

In LL studies, actors refer to the individuals, institutions, or organisations involved in the production, regulation, circulation, and interpretation of public signage (Ben-Rafael et al., 2006; Shohamy & Gorter, 2009). These actors include policy makers, sign creators, as well as readers or passers-by, whose interactions with signs contribute to meaning-making in public space. LL scholarship commonly distinguishes between top-down actors, such as government agencies and local authorities, and bottom-up actors, including private businesses, organisations, and individual sign producers (Landry & Bourhis, 1997). Through their decisions, practices, and interpretations, these actors collectively shape the linguistic, symbolic, and ideological dimensions of the LL. In the context of this study, the term actor(s) is used primarily as a theoretical construct to acknowledge the multiple social roles involved in shaping the LL of tourist sites. While actor remains a broad conceptual term, this study predominantly uses the term sign creator when referring to those directly responsible for the construction of the signs, reflecting its empirical focus of the analysis.

1.10.9 Authorship

In LL research, authorship refers to the entity responsible for the creation, commissioning, or display of a sign within the public space. The concept of authorship is commonly used to distinguish between government-authored (top-down) signs and privately authored (bottom-up) signs (Backhaus, 2007; Landry & Bourhis, 1997). This distinction is central to LL studies, as different forms of authorship often reflect differing degrees of policy regulations, institutional authority, and communicative intent. In this study, authorship is employed as an analytical category in the empirical analysis to classify signs according to whether they are produced by government bodies or private entities. This categorisation allows for a systematic examination of language choice, code preference, and policy compliance across different types of signage within tourist sites.

1.11 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter provides the background of the study which includes explanations of language situation in Malaysia, overview on the notion of LL, followed by addressing the gap in problem statement, the significance of the study, as well as the research objectives and research questions. The limitation, theoretical frameworks and definitions of key terms study are also provided in this chapter.

CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the relevant literature pertaining to the study of linguistic landscape (LL). The first segment briefly introduces the topic of LL. It explicates the definition of the term LL, followed by a brief discussion on the development of LL studies, as well as LL functions. The second segment focuses on the relation between LL and tourism, followed by the third segment which addresses the language policy in the local LL. The fourth segment elaborates on LL and multilingualism, which reviews the theoretical frameworks related to the study as well as different approaches towards LL. The final segment discusses the perception in relation to LL. This chapter also includes discussion of multiple theoretical perspectives related to the present study.

2.2 Linguistic Landscape

Human lives are closely related to signs as the exposure is interminably. The production of signs in public space demonstrates that LL is fundamentally a product of human social action (Nofal & Mansour, 2015). As signs are frequently exposed to the public for an extended period of time, it conveys and disseminates meaning more effectively than other forms of writing. Indeed, there is a great demand for signs in everyday life. Exposure to a variety of signs displayed in public spaces may help people to understand the reality in terms of how things are done and perceived (Zimny, 2017). In the context of displaying itself, it signifies the symbolic meaning or the conception that most signs carry (Wang, 2015). For instance, one can expect to see a name of a place on a sign that simply acts as an explanatory sign to inform others, or it may help a person to understand the history and the community. Wang further claims that signs fundamentally construct the LL depending on what it refers to or symbolizes something other than itself.

Sign is known to be the crucial key concept or the key feature in the study of LL (Dixson, 2015). Through studying signs in public spaces, a large amount of information can be inferred such as competing language ideologies, struggles for power and prestige, language policy, and linguistic territories (Cenoz & Gorter, 2008; Dagenais et al., 2009; Leeman & Modan, 2009; Papen 2012). It is a sign that creates and categorizes different LL in its various forms. The presence of signs entails a concrete description that can be identified to enrich the context of the LL studies. Thus, it is believed that signs and language are interlinked with one another which further create an interpretation of LL (Dixson, 2015).

2.2.1 Definitions of Linguistic Landscape

Linguistic landscape study provides an approach for investigating the use of visual language in public space. Based on the interpretation of sociolinguistics, it is a concept used to describe studies that investigate how languages are visually displayed in multilingual settings. The term 'linguistic landscape' refers to linguistic objects that mark the public space (Ben-Rafael, 2009, p.40). The notion also refers to the '… visibility and salience of languages of public and commercial signs in a given territory or region…' (Landry & Bourhis 1997, p.23). In other words, LL is a study which refers to all language items that are visible in a specified public space.

A commonly quoted definition of LL is the one proposed by Landry and Bourhis (1997, p.25). Landry and Bourhis (1997) investigated the role of LL in language maintenance and ethnolinguistic vitality in Canada. They defined LL as:

> *"The language of public road signs, advertising billboards, street names, place names, commercial shop signs, and public signs on government buildings combines to form the linguistic landscape of a given territory, region, or urban agglomeration".*

Simultaneously, it describes the aim of LL research as investigating "…the visibility and salience of languages on public and commercial signs in a given territory or region" (1997, p.23). Reh (2004), in turn, adopts this concept to analyse fixed, mobile, and 'transitional' objects in Lira, Uganda. Based on the definition provided by

Landry and Bourhis (1997), Gorter (2006, p.2) also defines the concept of LL as "…the use of language in its written form in the public realm" and "visible language in a certain region". Likewise, Ben-Rafael et al. (2006, p.14) elucidated LL as "… any sign or announcements located outside or within a public institution or private enterprise in a given geographical location". By the same token, Backhaus (2007, p.66) refined Landry and Bourhis' definition where he explained LL is considered as:

> *"...any piece of written text within a spatially definable frame. The underlying definition is physical, not semantic. It is rather broad, including anything from the small handwritten sticker attached to a lamppost to huge commercial billboards outside a department store. Items such as push and pull stickers at entrance doors, lettered foot mats, or botanic explanation plates on trees were considered signs, too".*

This definition states that regardless of how big or small the signs are, each sign is still considered to be one LL sign. As Sebba (2010) points out, non-stationary linguistic objects like product labels, pamphlets, banknotes, stamps, tickets, handbills, and flyers are extensively distributed in the LL, suggesting that mobile items should be considered alongside fixed signs rather than excluded from LL analysis. Despite the importance of fixed signage in LL research, Sebba proposes analysing it as one set of LL items.

Although most of the scholars in LL refer to Landry and Bourhis's (1997) definition of LL and accept it as the starting point of their analytical LL study, many scholars have further expanded the interpretation of LL with broader meanings. For instance, Pietikainen, Lane, Salo and Lahialal-Kankainen (2011, p.279) describe LL as "…a discursively constructed public space, which results from human action and thus is subject to various kinds of political and ideological logics and innovations". Rowland (2012, p.503) further defines LL as "…an ideologically loaded space shaped by both local and global forces and displaying a full range of communicative modalities. It exists in an authentic, dynamic, and public mega-text that serves real-world purposes as it is constantly changing and accessible to all". Since language is not the only force that may convey meaning, other conceivable 'discourses' that arise in public places, such as texts, pictures, objects, location in time and space, and people should also be encompassed in the LL interpretations (Shohamy & Waksman, 2009). This is due to the fact that textual discourse may interact with other modes of communication such as

visual images, nonverbal communication, architecture, and the built environment (Jaworski & Thurlow, 2010). Understanding various sorts of LL texts with other conceivable discourses necessitate the use of diverse views and theories in relation to multimodality, multilingualism, and discourse analysis (Alomoush, 2015). These descriptions provide an essential dimension to the field of LL which allow signs to be studied in variety of perspectives.

It is significant to acknowledge that the term 'linguistic landscape' has gone beyond the physical definition which is believed to trigger many debates on what should be included in the LL and how the data are supposed to be organised and categorised. There are some researchers who have criticized the limitations of the commonly quoted definitions by Landry and Bourhis (1997) and managed to expand the scope of LL by including various literacy items and other elements within their scope of study. For instance, to encompass a description of language history or different levels in the knowledge of languages (Gorter, 2006); to include the importance of LL in economic processes (Cenoz & Gorter, 2010); and broadened the scope of study by investigating places like beaches, cyberspace, campuses, and big corporations (Shohamy & Gorter, 2009). What constitute a sign has greatly influenced the conception of the term and indeed important to be considered in the LL study.

Since the notion of the LL has developed and expanded to cover a wide variety of settings for different research purposes, defining the term remains a key challenge faced by many contemporary researchers. However, drawing upon newly established theoretical and epistemological viewpoints within the field, including evolving methodologies and an expanded range of literacy items, the current study builds upon the conceptual foundation provided by Backhaus (2007), who engaged in an extensive sociolinguistic analysis of languages in the LL of Tokyo. For the purposes of this study, the definition proposed by Backhaus (2007, p.66) is adopted, which identifies a sign as "any piece of written text within a spatially definable frame". This definition is selected because it is sufficiently broad to encompass the diverse range of signs encountered in tourist spaces, from large commercial billboards and government road signs to smaller informational and directional signs, while remaining grounded in the physical and visible dimension of language use in public spaces. Unlike earlier definitions that limit the LL to rigid, named categories of signs (Landry & Bourhis, 1997), Backhaus's formulation allows for a more inclusive and contextually flexible approach to data

collection, which is particularly suited to the varied and dynamic signage environments of Malaysian tourist sites.

This definition is highly relevant for the present study, as the language used in tourist spaces typically exists within a multilingual context where visitors are exposed to a variety of factors, including strategic language choices, hierarchical language orderings, institutional regulations, and distinct dimensions of literacy. Consequently, a sign in this study refers to any written text displayed within the public sphere, encompassing road signs, names of sites, streets, buildings, places, institutions, advertising billboards, and commercial shop signs, adapted from Backhaus (2007). These signs are intended to publicise general messages to the public through specific forms and functions, such as instructions, information, and warnings, thereby facilitating navigation and delivering essential information to visitors.

The review of definitions presented in this section reveals that the conceptualisation of LL has evolved significantly since Landry and Bourhis's (1997) foundational study. Early definitions focused narrowly on fixed written texts in named public categories, while subsequent scholars progressively expanded the scope to include diverse sign types, multimodal elements, and ideological dimensions of public space. This evolution reflects a broader shift in LL research from descriptive documentation of language distribution to critical examination of how language choices in public spaces are shaped by power, identity, policy, and globalisation. For this study, which investigates the LL of tourist spaces in Malaysia, this broader understanding is essential, as tourist signs is not merely informational, rather it serves as a complex intersection of sociolinguistic meaning, commercial intent, and policy implications that require both definitional precision and interpretive flexibility.

2.2.2 The Study of Linguistic Landscape

The study of language on public signage has started since 1970s where Masai (1972) found the existence of English in Tokyo. Tulp also conducted a study on bilingual commercial billboards in Brussels in 1978, signifying on the dominance of French. Later in 1977, Rosenbaum and colleagues studied English and Hebrew signs in a street of Jerusalem and highlighted the public tolerance against the existence of foreign languages on signs. There were also a few notable contributions to LL studies

in the 1980s and 1990s: Spolsky and Cooper (1983, 1991), conducted a study on language on signs in the Old City of Jerusalem; Leclerc (1989) came up with a study that covered worldwide legal provisions related to language on signs; and Calvet (1990, 1994) compared the LL of Paris and Dakar; and McArthur (2000) conducted a survey of the language usage of street and store signs in Zurich and Uppsala. Much attention has been paid to LL research since then and the study of LL has gained importance, especially in the field of sociolinguistics.

Although there have been studies conducted on LL, research on its own theme is regarded as relatively new. Since LL studies have emerged with rapid expansion among researchers, it has grown considerably and echoed over the years (Backhaus, 2006; Gorter, 2006; Cenoz & Gorter, 2010). Shohamy and Gorter (2009) demonstrate how these primary and ongoing studies focus on ways in which LL provide insights into the nuances of language group vitality, identities, and dynamics. As the study of LL has proliferated over the years, more questions are raised in relation to what constitutes a sign, who create signs, who is the target audience, and how signs are interpreted and depicted. As a result, more recent research attempts to define and understand multiple aspects of LL throughout the globe (Shohamy & Gorter, 2009). This has brought about a renewed interest in the LL field.

Current LL studies have demonstrated multi-faceted phenomenon which create range of theoretical perspectives and methodological approaches (Gorter, 2013; Shohamy & Gorter, 2009). They are mainly studied in urban settings around the world, as these areas are well known for their enormous signs and other linguistic information (Kartushina, 2020; McDermott, 2019). According to Dagenais et al. (2009), cities are loaded with signs that must be decoded, read, and interpreted by the citizens who participate in the consumption of changes involves within the metropolis. Since LL is often studied in urban areas, especially in multilingual context, terms such as “linguistic cityscape” (Coulmas, 2009, p.14) and “multilingual cityscape” (Cenoz & Gorter, 2008, p. 268) have been introduced by some scholars. The examination of these cityscapes has yielded fruitful outcomes that are believed to provide significant linguistic diversification (Backhaus, 2006; Huebner, 2006; Landry and Bourhis, 1997; Rosenbaum et al., 1977).

Similar research on LL has also been conducted in Asian metropolises. For instance, in Bangkok by Huebner (2009); in Tokyo by Backhaus (2007); Taipei by Curtin (2009); Hong Kong by Lock (2003), Scollon and Scollon (2003) and Jaworski and Yeung (2010); Mumbai by Shukla and Singh (2018); Shanghai by Wang (2022); Indonesia (Gorontalo city) by Napu (2024); and Singapore by Teo and Perono Cacciafoco (2022). Despite the presence of stimulating visuals within the linguistic environment offered by the globalised city, scholars have also zoomed into different dichotomy such as in rural areas (Bhujel & Sinha, 2024; Chimirala & Dehari, 2025; Kotze & Du Plessis, 2010; Liu & Ma, 2023; Lu et el., 2020; Pietikainen et al., 2011; Sha, 2025; Sipayung & Simanjuntak, 2023), Chinatowns and various Little Italys (e.g., De Klerk & Wiley, 2010; Lou, 2010) which permit the growing body of literature and interest in the LL research. In fact, these new dichotomies have become the language melting pots of recent LL studies. They reflect not only empirical reality, but also encapsulate what goes beyond the existing relations and tensions between languages on display that often have greater meaning than what is presented on the surface.

Despite the confined studies that focus on one specific geographical area, another research interest of LL appears in places where they have been linguistic conflicts among different groups or a place where political tension exists. For instance, the Middle East countries are famous with active scenes of political tension happening over the years. This was where the initial LL works by Spolsky and Cooper (1991) were triggered and written. They were a few other researchers who followed suit and studied different parts of the Middle East, such as Ben-Rafael (2006; 2009; 2010), who examined the linguistic landscapes of West and East Jerusalem, Tel-Aviv, Nazareth, Kfar Shmaryahu, Ajami-Jaffa, and Tira; Shohamy (2006; 2009; 2010) who studied the LL of Jerusalem city under the influence of three languages which are Hebrew, Arabic and English; Trumper-Hecht (2010) who focused on the LL of Israel; and Waksman and Shohamy (2010) who explored the city of Tel Aviv-Jaffa. These empirical studies offer important outcomes and in-depth analysis which have been implemented and used in most LL research. For instance, Spolsky and Cooper (1991) managed to come out with relevant taxonomy of signs, which has more potential distinctive categorisations known as street signs, advertising signs, warning signs or prohibitions, building names, informative signs, commemorative plaques, signs labelling objects, and graffiti. They also agree that several other taxonomies available are also conceivable which consist

broader classifications of indicators. Although it is seemingly obvious, these classifications are strong indicators of what a study needs to search and consider when evaluating public spaces.

Other studies of LL also discussed diverging issues and one of the topics that has received special attention among scholars is language policy and planning. For instance, Cenoz and Gorter (2006) found in their studies that the difference in language policy influence the presence of minority languages in the LL of Netherland and Spain. Apart from that, Backhaus (2009) exhibited the contrast in the representation of the context in language policies in Canada and Japan; Du Plessis (2010) explored the language policy in terms of covert form, which indicates the effect it brings; and Dal Negro (2009) illustrated the influence of local language policy towards the dialect varieties in German. More recently, Cui, Bai, and Gu (2025) conducted a multidimensional analysis of the LL in Lhasa, Tibet, highlighting how local language policy affects the visibility of minority languages and identity construction in multilingual public spaces. Their findings further reinforce the significance of contextual and political factors in shaping LL representations across different regions.

In the local context, Manan et al. (2015) also conducted a LL analysis studying language policy and the methods used by the public to form the LL of Petaling Jaya. The results showed that most bilingual and multilingual signboards complied with the official policy in terms of BM prominence, font size, and language placement. Another similar study by Wang and Xu (2018) analysed the LL of two minority communities in Kuala Lumpur (Chinatown and Little India) and found that the two ethnic minorities' linguistic practices deviated from the state's language policy, which requires BM to be prioritised. Similarly, Anuarudin (2017) explored the relationship between language policy and actual practice of billboard advertising in the Klang Valley and found significant differences between the prescribed policy and actual implementation.

The divergence between Manan et al.'s (2015) finding of general compliance and the non-compliance reported by Wang and Xu (2018) and Anuarudin (2017) can be attributed to differences in research context, methodology, and sign type. Manan et al. (2015) focused on private shopfront signs in a predominantly Chinese-owned commercial area in Petaling Jaya, where compliance with BM prominence requirements was largely observed. Wang and Xu (2018), by contrast, examined minority enclave areas in Kuala Lumpur, namely Chinatown and Little India, where ethnic identity and

community language preferences have historically taken precedence over regulatory compliance. Anuarudin (2017) focused on billboard advertisements in the Klang Valley, a sign type subject to close monitoring by DBP and local councils, yet notable instances of policy non-compliance remained evident. These contextual differences suggest that compliance with language policy in Malaysia's LL is not uniform but is shaped by the type of sign, the commercial or ethnic context of the area, and the effectiveness of local enforcement mechanisms. It is therefore important for the present study to examine whether similar patterns of differential compliance emerge in tourism context, where governance structures and commercial motivations may interact differently from urban commercial or minority group settings.

Another focused interest is given towards the impact of globalisation on LL. This has been reflected not only in language commodification, but also in the dissemination and domination of English (Ben-Rafael, 2015; Curtin, 2007; Hult, 2014; Kasanga, 2012a; Vettorel & Franceschi, 2013) which has garnered great interest among scholars. Due to the variation of English and the salience of one language in the public space, it has become a rich field of LL research. English has become the language of wider communication found in most sites, especially in urban and tourist areas with mixed sociolinguistic groups where English acts as the lingua franca. Most of the time, English language works as the connotative purposes rather than informative (Backhaus 2007, 2008; Ben-Rafael et al., 2006, pp. 24-25; Cenoz & Gorter, 2006, p. 78, Cenoz & Gorter, 2009; Huebner, 2009, pp. 33-34). Furthermore, the commercial usage of English in advertisement, product branding, shops has become a popular subject explored by many scholars (Bhatia, 1987; Bolton, 2012; Friedrich, 2002; Ross, 1997; Schlick, 2003; Tulp, 1978). Therefore, English in particular has drawn much attention in the LL study.

Prior to the issue of globalisation, it has provided a significant amount of research potential in most parts of the world to examine the influence of English on local languages. There are instances where certain sign creators have erroneously presumed that the use of English may draw greater audience. Nevertheless, one of the consequences of such presumption is that other languages' prominence or visibility has caused to diminish. Therefore, caution should be taken since assumptions made on this basis can be deceiving and misleading (Scollon & Scollon, 2003). Although the global spread of English may be viewed as a threat to some, very few territories see it as such.

With the spread of English as a global language, LLs are becoming increasingly multilingual.

Among famous studies in relation to the influence of globalisation was by Blackwood (2010), who investigated the visibility of minority languages in France within the French LL in response to the global influences. Moreover, LL studies in some parts of Eastern Europe have been covered by few other researchers namely Marten (2010) in Latvia and Pavlenko (2010) in Ukraine, which has similar interest in seeing the possible upsurge of the usage of signs in English. Unlike in North America, the focus of the investigations was prone towards the relations between English and other dominant languages among immigrants. More recently, in Phuket Island, Pathanasin (2025) found that English dominated most signs, primarily due to the influence of tourism and globalisation. These studies collectively suggest that globalisation continues to reinforce the prominence of English in public spaces, reshaping language hierarchies and symbolic representation.

In the LL of Malaysia, one of the instances highlighted by Anuarudin (2017) was on the use of English billboard advertisements where the presence of English is more prominent than BM in areas dominated by Chinese-speaking and Tamil-speaking communities. Rather than indicating linguistic competence or fluency in English among these communities, this prominence more plausibly reflects the symbolic and commercial functions of English in Malaysian public spaces. As Anuarudin (2017) elaborates, the use of English in such contexts may be attributed to the influence of foreign tastes, fashions, and commercial associations, particularly when English is used to carry aspirational or internationally oriented messages. This is consistent with findings from Wang et al. (2015), whose research in Chinatown and Brickfields, Kuala Lumpur found a strong presence of English on signs in both areas, not as an indicator of English fluency among residents but as a language of prestige, modernity, success, and sophistication. Similarly, Zaini et al. (2021) found that English usage in Kuantan's business signage projects modernity and sophistication, demonstrating its enduring prestige in Malaysia's LL. As Scollon and Scollon (2003) caution, the language displayed on signs may symbolise values that do not directly reflect the linguistic practices or competencies of the surrounding community. This distinction is particularly important to observe when interpreting English visibility in multilingual tourist spaces, where economic and branding motivations often outweigh linguistic representation.

These similar instances are likely to be found in the LL of tourism, where English is predominantly used in advertisements and commercial signs given its recognised potential for economic appeal and destination branding (Lanza & Woldemariam, 2009; Mubarok et al., 2024; Xiao & Pang, 2024).

The study of LL can also be seen in bilingual and multilingual contexts, providing in-depth information about the sociolinguistics and use of different languages in public spaces (Cenoz & Gorter, 2006). A vast amount of LL research in Asia has been carried out to explore the richness of multilingual contexts that reflect high diversity in ethnicity, culture, and background. A number of studies have been conducted, particularly in Southeast Asia such as in Thailand (Huebner, 2006; 2009), Cambodia (Kasanga, 2012), Vietnam (Tran, 2021), Brunei Darussalam (Coluzzi, 2012b), Timor-Leste (Macalister, 2012; Taylor-Leech, 2012), Singapore (Tan, 2011; 2014; Teo & Perono Cacciafoco, 2022) and more recently, Indonesia (Artawa et al., 2023; Ayyub & Rohmah, 2024; Da Silva, Tjung, & Wijayanti, 2021; Djonda & Madrunio, 2023; Rastitiati & Suprastayasa, 2022).

As for Malaysia, LL is still considered under-researched despite a growing body of work conducted in this area. Even though few studies focus specifically on tourist spaces, existing Malaysian LL literature offers valuable contextual insights into policy compliance and public multilingual practices, which help clarify the broader linguistic landscape surrounding these tourist sites. For instance, Coluzzi and Kitade (2015) conducted a study on the languages of places of worship in Kuala Lumpur across seven different religious sites. The results demonstrate a large gap between the Malaysian state's official policy and the actual practices used by Malaysians, particularly among non-Bumiputeras, with monolingual signs predominating in most of the surveyed worship places within this multilingual society. Supramani et al. (2014) also conducted research on language endangerment in Malaysia, centred on the Tamil language in Brickfields, Kuala Lumpur. Their research found that the Tamil language has poor linguistic vitality and is underrepresented in public spaces, though they suggest that the language may be revived with the support of educational and religious organisations.

More recent studies by Zainal et al. (2021) and Woo and Riget (2020) have investigated multilingual signs in urban Malaysia, revealing English's symbolic association with modernity and internationalism. Their findings highlight that English is strategically used in business and public spaces to appeal to diverse consumer

demographics and project an image of progress and sophistication. Adding to this body of research, Mansoor et al. (2023) examined language choices in signboards in Semenyih, a small township in Selangor, and observed that English was the most dominant language, despite BM being the official national language. Although Semenyih is not a tourist destination, this finding remains contextually relevant as it demonstrates that the tension between official language policy and actual practices in Malaysia extends beyond major urban centres to smaller localities.

This broader pattern is particularly significant for the present study, as similar tensions may be expected to manifest in tourist spaces such as those examined here, where commercial priorities and visitor demographics shape language choices in ways that do not always align with regulatory requirements. Collectively, these Malaysian studies reinforce the broader Southeast Asian multilingual trend in which linguistic landscapes are influenced by intersecting factors such as government policy, sociocultural identity, and commercial imperatives, providing a crucial foundation for understanding how similar trends might be manifested in the LL of Malaysian tourist spaces.

There are also other studies that have looked into elements that had previously been ignored in most LL research. Several loose threads from previous research have been picked up by Shohamy and Gorter (2009) in their publication entitled 'Linguistic Landscape: Expanding the Scenery', namely the role of people or actors such as the sign producers or creators, readers, and interpreters. Other studies have also attended and raised concern on the lack of connection with various actors involved in most of LL studies conducted (Ben-Rafael, 2009; Huebner, 2009; Malinowski, 2009; Shohamy & Gorter, 2009; Spolsky, 2009). In most cases, actors have been overlooked which according to Malinowski (2009, p.108) "more frequently, the domain underlying the LL of human agency remains unnamed". In Oakland, California, Malinowski (2009) studied shop signs in Korean town. To achieve more realistic understanding of the signs, not only did he document and classify the signs, but also interviewed shop owners concerning their choices on the preferred language and style, how the sign is meant to be interpreted, and how the sign is currently perceived. The complexity of the spaces created resulted in various approaches drawn from different fields, including linguistics, sociology, politics, and cultural studies (Barni & Bagna, 2009).

Recent LL studies have increasingly underscored the central role of actors in shaping LLs. For instance, Sieras (2024) examined how sign creators construct inclusive multilingual signage that aligns with tourist expectations and communicative needs. Similarly, He and Chen (2024) and Kimambo and Mdukula (2024) highlighted the importance of analysing the LL of tourist spaces, such as cafes near Labrang Monastery and sites in Tanzania, by considering how shop owners actively negotiate language choice and visibility in their signage practices. Furthermore, Yao and Gruba (2022) demonstrate through their ethnographic approach how both sign creators and readers actively produce, interpret, and negotiate signs within specific sociocultural contexts. These varied approaches are significant for adoption and implementation in other LL studies, reflecting an increasing engagement with actors and a growing call for more actor-oriented and socially inclusive approaches. This diversification has led the present research to include the role of people as a vital element in exploring the dynamic interplay between language, space, and actors.

Recent LL studies have also called for multidisciplinary approach. Most of the recent LL research has taken steps to diverge into different themes as alternatives to be added to the existing body of knowledge. For instance, Zhao (2020), investigated 766 COVID-19 related signs displayed on public transport, shop windows, city noticeboards, inside museums and churches in densely populated urban areas of France, Italy, and the Netherlands. The comparative study helped to broaden the research context, particularly in revealing interesting points of convergence and divergence in LL practices across the three countries and how they reflect the multilingual status, cultural and socio-political differences of the chosen research areas. Although a qualitative approach was implemented in which the researcher asked a few native speakers to comment on several interesting signs, the approach appears less in-depth compared to other studies like Edelman (2010), where interviews with readers and sign creators were included, resulting in more holistic and fruitful findings. Drawing on these studies, this research endeavours to fill the gaps highlighted by taking into consideration the perception of public as well as sign creators.

An extensive array of possibilities has emerged within the current scope of LL literature, expanding far beyond traditional analyses of signs. Emerging areas of focus include language and mobility (Peck & Banda, 2014; Pennycook & Otsuji, 2020); semiotic landscapes (Lou, 2023; Stroud & Jegels, 2013), and geosemiotics (Iqani &

Baro, 2017; Zhou & Kallen, 2021). There are also studies that have ventured into the representations of underlying ideologies represented in the LL of public spaces and how these have influenced society (Djonda & Madrunio, 2023; Hult, 2014; Manan et al., 2015; Moriarty, 2014a; Pietikainen, 2014; Teo & Perono Cacciafoco, 2022). Work done by Yendra et al. (2020) additionally seeks to broaden the scope of LL by following Shohamy and Gorter's (2009) recommendation to include graffiti as part of their LL study, recognising it as a legitimate component of urban linguistic environments. Despite acknowledging this approach, this study deliberately excludes graffiti from its scope of data collection for two reasons. First, from a theoretical standpoint, graffiti is characterized by its unofficial, unauthorized, and ephemeral nature, placing it outside the category of official institutional or commercial signs (Backhaus, 2007; Shohamy & Gorter, 2009). Second, from a practical perspective, the transient nature of graffiti makes it difficult to systematically document across the selected tourist sites. The exclusion of graffiti therefore does not represent a gap in the data but reflects a deliberate and theoretically grounded methodological boundary that is consistent with the study's focus on formally produced and publicly displayed signs.

Beyond the question of graffiti, LL studies are also expanding into online and virtual spaces, where digital signs and visual language practices reflect evolving communication norms (Ivkovic & Lotherington, 2009; Troyer, 2012; Tufi & Blackwood, 2020). These recent studies confirm that LL is not merely visual or linguistic per se but rather functions as a multifaceted tool that illustrates various elements, including the social, cultural, political, and economic conditions of a particular area. The development of LL studies has resulted in diversification of the research domain and broadened the theoretical as well as methodological approaches, highlighting the shifts in LL interpretations. Since it has been studied from various viewpoints such as the landscape visibility and power analysis, language planning, multilingualism, architecture, semiotic and geosemiotic approaches, language, gender and race, LL has developed into a promising area of study with endless opportunity for investigation. This 'critical turn' to LL in view of its broad and complex existence should not only be regarded as a shift from synchronic to diachronic understanding of LL and the enhanced interdisciplinary richness of it, but also as a trigger to investigate all signs that represent or mediates language within the sociolinguistic context. Considering the recentness of these notions and available publications, it is therefore

plausible to consider LL as a dedicated area of study that is expanding at a significant rate. Given that Malaysia is moving towards a rising economic power that offers a multilingual environment in which growing globalisation fulfils the preconditions for fruitful LL research, investigating the LL in relation to tourism would bridge the gap in the LL field (refer to section 2.2).

The body of literature reviewed in this section reveals several significant patterns in the development of LL research. First, the field has expanded geographically from its origins in Western, multilingual urban contexts to encompass diverse settings across Asia, Africa, and Southeast Asia, demonstrating its global relevance. Second, methodologically, LL research has evolved from purely quantitative sign counts towards mixed-methods approach that integrate visual, ethnographic, and interview-based data, reflecting a growing recognition that signs must be understood in relation to the actors who produce and interpret them. Third, thematically, the field has shifted from describing language distribution to critically examining the ideological, economic, and policy dimensions of language visibility in public spaces. These developments collectively point to three gaps that the present study seeks to address: the limited attention to tourist spaces as distinct LL environments in Malaysia, the insufficient engagement with the perspectives of sign creators and enforcement officers as key actors, and the absence of a comprehensive, multi-source investigation that triangulates visual, policy, interview, and survey data in a single Malaysian tourist LL study.

2.2.3 Functions of Linguistic Landscape

The study of LL has grown substantially in scope and complexity. In order to study the language on signs, it is essential to look at the language itself as well as its function. Signs within the LL serve both informational and symbolic functions that mark the territory or geographical space of a place (Landry & Bourhis, 1997; Spolsky & Cooper, 1991). The informational function of LL provides information that clearly shows the function of the specific use of language(s) that serves as a communicating tool in channelling information to the readers. LL is employed as an informative tool that functions as a distinctive indicator of a language group in a geographical territory (Landry & Bourhis, 1997). The information displayed on signs may be on the boundaries of a certain speech community or the language situation of a certain

territory. This condition can be seen in the Malaysian context, particularly in areas like Chinatown or Little India in Kuala Lumpur, where most displayed signs are in Mandarin or Tamil which portrays a picture of the speech community living in the areas (Wang & Xu, 2018). This is because of the influence by the community occupying those areas, a factor similarly highlighted by Anuarudin (2017) in her LL study on billboard advertisement. Besides that, Dagenais et al. (2009) also claimed that there are other factors that influence the construction of informative signs which include physical locations as well as physical qualities of signs (e.g., font, colour, material, and style).

Symbolic function, on the other hand, refers to the "…status and values of the languages perceived by the community of a specific language group in comparison to other existing languages" (Cenoz & Gorter, 2009, p.56). It denotes a desired message hiding behind this symbol. The symbolic function is relatively complementary due to the role of language that reflects the social status as well as the relationship between authorities and citizen (Shang & Zhao, 2014). Language display in public spaces seems to function more than just to convey information. It also helps to expose deeper symbolic meaning that can be seen through language policy, discrimination, marginalization, and other significant societal factors (Cenoz & Gorter, 2008; Leeman & Modan, 2009; Papen, 2012).

Barni and Bagna (2009) also explicated that LL should not only be considered as a contributing factor that describe the presence of languages and the characteristics of the linguistics use in a given space, but rather towards describing further on the details of why such languages are created. Although the features are not always clearly specified on signs, there is often a deeper meaning behind every text. It conveys a strong message where language can reflect strength, power, status, significance, and vitality in the area. For instance, Coluzzi (2017) investigated a study the presence of the Italian language in the landscape of Kuala Lumpur. From the study, he concluded that information provided in the LL may index the social positioning of people, convey the identity of a language community, socio-political relationships between languages, as well as economic messages empowering the consumers. Hence, factors relating to symbolic functions include meanings interpreted in relation to identity, power relations, cultural affiliation, and language status (Dagenais et al., 2009).

Scollon and Scollon (2003, p.119) also clearly demonstrate the difference between 'symbolisation' and 'indexicality', both of which are terms frequently

discussed in LL studies. Symbolisation refers to the use of signs or language(s) as abstract representations of values, ideologies, or identities that may not have a direct link to the physical setting where they appear. In contrast, indexicality concerns the way signs point to or "index" specific social, cultural, or geographical realities that are directly connected to a community or place. For instance, an English displayed sign in a traditional market may symbolise modernity or global connectedness rather than the linguistic practices of the local population, whereas a sign written in the local language indexes the presence and identity of that community. It is important to note that codes on signs may symbolise values which do not relate to the place or the community living in that particular area. Nevertheless, there should be clear evidence outside these signs that may determine whether the languages appearing on particular LL items project indexical or symbolic functions. As Scollon and Scollon (2003) note, codes on signs often symbolise values detached from their immediate contexts, especially in commercial spaces, where linguistic choices frequently serve symbolic rather than indexical purposes. Their observation aligns with findings by Husin, Ariffin, Mello, Omar, and Anuarudin (2019), who conducted a synchronic analysis of digitally captured commercial shop signs in three selected regions of Kuala Lumpur, focusing on language use and trends. Based on the data collected, bilingual shop signs predominated the retail streets primarily in the Kuala Lumpur area, with English being more prominent than the national language or other languages. This pattern reflects what Ben-Rafael et al. (2006, p.10) describe as "the symbolic construction of the public space," wherein displayed languages signify social aspirations rather than compliance with official language policies.

Building on these findings and perspectives, the prominence of non-territorial languages, such as English in the LL can be viewed as 'instrumental' purposes rather than indexical (Heller, 2003). The visibility of English often stems from economic and pragmatic motivations, illustrating the LL as a space of linguistic instrumentalism, where language is often used for its utility and symbolic capital. Griffin (2004) describes English as a "juggernaut" that extends its influence globally, penetrating other linguistic and cultural domains and reinforcing its symbolic power. This symbolic dominance is most visible in commercial and tourism-related signage, where English is frequently used to project modernity, prestige, and international accessibility (Bennui, 2024; Cenoz & Gorter, 2009; Mansoor et al., 2023; Sieras, 2024; Zahara & Wijana,

2022; Zaini et al., 2021). Thus, English in the LL represents intertwined notions of status, power, identity, and globalisation, highlighting its dual role as both instrumental medium of communication and a symbolic marker of socio-economic aspiration (Gorter, 2018). This understanding provides a useful framework for examining how such dynamics unfold within Malaysia's multilingual and tourism-oriented contexts.

In this study, both the informational and symbolic functions of signs are examined across the three tourist sites in Perak. Government-authored signs are analysed primarily for their informational function in conveying policy-mandated content, while private commercial signs are examined for both functions: as communicative tools serving practical visitor needs and as symbolic markers of language identity, commercial aspiration, and cultural representation. This dual analytical lens, informed by the theoretical perspectives reviewed in this section, provides a foundation for interpreting how language is used and perceived in Malaysian tourist spaces.

2.3 Linguistic Landscape and Tourism

The LL of tourist destinations has evolved into a complex multilingual environment shaped by both business imperatives and tourist demand. The body of literature on LL and tourism collectively demonstrates three interconnected themes that are particularly relevant to the present study. First, tourist LLs function as communicative infrastructure that provide the informational and directional scaffolding through which visitors navigate and make sense of tourist spaces (Kallen, 2009; Ruzaite, 2017). Second, tourist LLs constitute a form of commodified identity work in which languages are strategically deployed on signs to construct destination images, project cultural authenticity, and appeal to target visitor demographics (Jaworski & Thurlow, 2010; Thurlow & Jaworski, 2011). Third, tourist LLs represent sites of tension between authenticity and accessibility, where the pressure to appear culturally authentic to some visitors may conflict with the need to be linguistically accessible to others, creating inherent contradictions in multilingual sign production (Beh, 2017; Moriarty, 2014). These three themes provide the analytical lens through which the tourism LL literature is reviewed in this section and through which the findings from the three tourist sites in Perak are interpreted in Chapter 4.

Tourist LLs not only reflect the practical communicative functions of sign but also embody broader socio-cultural meanings, including the representation of identity, the commodification of languages, and the negotiation of power between global and local linguistic resources. As highlighted by Bruyel-Olmedo and Juan-Garau (2009), the LL of those destinations not only represents the reality, but also the current relationships and conflicts between the displayed languages. Since tourism is described as one of the greatest population movements of all time and has become one of the world's largest international trades, language has become an integral part of the 'movement' alongside people who travel (Thurlow & Jaworski, 2011). In this sense, LL is known to be the main symbolic resource of tourists' visual consumption of a particular destination and is regarded as one of the most influential aspects of tourists' experiences (Lu et al., 2020). Tourism activities are therefore intrinsically interrelated with the LL of the preferred location (Shang, 2018).

Kallen (2009) provides a useful framework for understanding the communicative functions of tourism signs, highlighting four key aspects: (1) indicative signs such as place names and directions, (2) regulatory signs like warnings and notices, (3) welcoming and greeting signs that foster interpersonal interaction, and (4) informational signs introducing tourist sites. These functions illustrate how LL simultaneously supports practical navigation and symbolic representation. Most importantly, LL ties actors (e.g., policy makers, sign creators and readers) together. Different target languages are used by tourism authorities and other agencies to convey information to diverse groups of visitors, and the LL of tourist areas offers a space for visual consumption through the displayed language (Thurlow & Jaworski, 2011). The symbolic role of LL in tourist spaces not only functions to address the linguistic vitality and societal position of multilingual spaces but also conveys unique representative meanings (e.g., unusual atmosphere, nostalgia, hospitality, and aesthetic appeal) that provide greater impact on the tourism industry. It is therefore presumed that the amount and quality of the LL in public spaces may affect and elevate tourists' experience in visiting their preferred tourist destinations (Lu et al., 2020). These insights collectively underscore that tourist LL is not merely a functional signage system but a multi-layered communicative environment that simultaneously serves informational, symbolic, and experiential functions. This understanding is central to the present study, which

examines how signs in Perak's tourist sites fulfil these multiple roles across three distinct contexts.

The unique construction of LL in tourist spaces plays an indispensable role, especially in tourism development. LL tends to be more diversified in areas that have significant tourism development (Kallen, 2009). It is important to note that special and unique LL may provide authentic experience for first-time tourists. The use of foreign languages, especially English, has grown substantially alongside tourism development. This can be seen in a study conducted by Bruyel-Olmedo and Juan-Garau (2009), who studied the LL of tourist sites in Mallorca and found that English functions as an international language capable of influencing tourists' experiences. Similarly, Jaworski and Thurlow (2010) argue that LL in tourist spaces frequently relies on exoticisation and authenticity discourses, where languages are stylised to create symbolic 'tourism imaginaries'. This is also evident in multiple recent studies exploring the LL of prominent tourist destinations. For instance, Nenotek et al. (2025) examined tourist signs in Indonesia's Timor Tengah Selatan and highlighted the strategic use of multilingualism to enhance inclusivity and economic opportunity, and Firdausiyah and Suhandano (2025) showed how heritage tourism signs in Bandar Grissee constructed cultural significance through bottom-up language choices. Both studies demonstrate how languages within the community are stylised, recontextualised, and commodified in service of the tourism industry.

Other tourism studies on LL have also been conducted that provide greater impact on the sociolinguistics or discourse analytical perspectives. Ruzaite (2017) compared the use of LL in two areas, namely Polish and Lithuanian resorts, and analysed the authenticity of multilingual signs, identified the establishment types, and determined which language coexisted in the Lithuanian and Polish popular tourist destinations. From the 515 digital images of multilingual signs, several major tendencies in language displays were found to be related to tourist exchange as well as visitor's needs. However, some trends showed absence of Russian in Polish LLs, which needed to be investigated further with regard to the symbolic, economic, and ideological values attached to non-titular languages. Another study on tourist space was conducted by Thongtong (2016), who investigated how the LLs were constructed and represented within the tourist spaces of Chiang Mai, Thailand. The analysis included language choices, primarily signs on Nimmanhemin Road. The results showed that Chiang Mai's

LL significantly reflected transliteration word formation, lexical relationships, and politeness strategies, indicating how tourist spaces are constructed through linguistic creativity.

Building on these perspectives, Sari (2019) explored the LL of tourist sites in Malang, Indonesia. Based on her study, she analysed the language displayed, the characteristics of the signs and the reasons of displaying the signs in Museum Angkut. From the 306 signs displayed, it was found that many of them were dominated by Indonesian and English, with additional representations of Chinese, Arabic, German, Italian, French, Dutch, and Sundanese. This exposes that the tourist areas prioritise multilingual signs which seems crucial to attract the foreign tourists in getting to know the local history. However, this study only examined a single site, leading to a restricted scope of findings. Taken together, these studies reveal how LL functions not just as signage but as a contested site where authenticity, commodification, and symbolic exclusion are negotiated. These dynamics are particularly relevant to the Malaysian tourist context, where language choices in public spaces reflect competing pressures from national language policy, commercial interests, and the multilingual expectations of diverse visitor groups.

More recent studies have continued to explore LL in Asian tourism contexts, showing a growing diversity in approaches and findings. For instance, Teo and Perono Cacciafoco (2022) demonstrated how Singapore's heritage districts employed multilingual signs to construct cultural narratives for global audiences, balancing heritage preservation with tourist marketing. Hultgren and Chen (2022) highlighted how Macau's LL reflected ongoing tensions between Portuguese, Chinese, and English, revealing how colonial legacies intersect with contemporary tourist branding. In Bangladesh, Rahman and Al Amin (2023) showed how English is commodified in Cox's Bazar, while Bangla retains its symbolic value, raising questions about linguistic inequality in tourism economies. Lee and Lim (2024) pushed the field forward by documenting digital multilingualism in Seoul's tourist signage, including QR codes and augmented reality, highlighting how LL is entering a new phase where technology mediates tourist experiences. Collectively, these studies illustrate a shift in LL research from static documentation of signs to broader analysis of socio-political tensions, economic commodification, and technological mediation in the LL tourism field.

The study of LL in Malaysia's tourist spaces has gradually gained attention among scholars. There have been studies conducted in relation to tourist spaces such as early foundational work done by Manan et al. (2015), who examined signs in Chinatown and Little India (Brickfields), both of which are culturally significant and highly visited tourist districts in Kuala Lumpur. Their study revealed that English, along with other vernacular languages like Chinese and Tamil, served both communicative and symbolic roles, projecting cultural heritage while catering to tourist expectations of accessibility and global relevance. Building on these insights, Wang et al. (2015) analysed the construction of identity through language use in the same areas, confirming that multilingual signs, especially those incorporating English function as a strategic tool to appeal to both locals and tourists.

Further research by Jiao and Singh (2024) expanded the scope of LL studies to George Town, Penang, a UNESCO World Heritage Site, revealing the strategic use of English and local languages on public signs to attract international visitors while preserving cultural authenticity. Similarly, Beh (2017) highlighted the symbolic role of English in Penang's tourism sites, where its prevalence on public signage indexes modernity and cosmopolitan appeal. Complementing these findings, Ali et al. (2025) recently explored the LL of Kuching Waterfront in Sarawak, emphasising the importance of language accessibility for international tourists and noting greater multilingual visibility, including Arabic, which helps to enhance visitors' experiences and destination appeal.

Despite these valuable contributions, LL research in Malaysia's tourism context remains limited across four specific dimensions. In terms of sites, existing studies have focused almost exclusively on major urban heritage destinations such as Penang, George Town and commercial districts in Kuala Lumpur, with rural, coastal, and theme park tourist environments remaining largely unexamined. In terms of methods, most Malaysian tourism LL studies have relied on visual sign documentation alone without integrating policy document analysis, interview data from sign creators, or public perception surveys within a single study. In terms of theory, the application of Trumper-Hecht's (2010) three-dimensional spatial framework to Malaysian tourist spaces has not previously been attempted, leaving the conceived and lived dimensions of the tourist LL underexplored. In terms of participants, the perspectives of sign creators and enforcement officers as key actors shaping the tourist LL have received insufficient

attention, with most studies focusing on the signs themselves rather than on the people who produce and regulate them. The present study directly addresses all four of these limitations.

Tourism plays a significant role in the development of LL, especially in revitalizing the national language and supporting its long-term preservation (Bruyel-Olmedo & Juan-Garau, 2015). However, the development of tourism also poses analytical challenges for LL studies, one of which concerns the role of 'tourist gaze' in relation to the tourists' experiences (Urry & Larsen, 2011). Urry and Larsen further elaborate that tourists often place expectations when engaging with heritage tourism, searching for authentic cultural and linguistic experiences from local communities. Given its relevance, the concept of the 'tourist gaze' provides a valuable lens through which to understand how LLs are shaped and consumed in tourist destinations. Another threat that has been commonly raised is on the 'purity of language' in tourist destinations (Bao & Chu, 2014). This is due to the massive number of tourists who bring diverse foreign languages to local population. These languages are widely learned and used by the locals, resulting in decreased use of the local language and reduced linguistic stability (Moriarty, 2014). Such debates reveal the ideological tensions within LL studies, where languages are simultaneously commodified and at risk of being marginalised. Huang (2018) suggests that careful LL planning is needed and that more valuable aspects of local culture should be integrated to sustain authentic local experiences and enhance accessibility. Ultimately, while tourism promotes language visibility and economic value within the LL, it also raises important considerations regarding the preservation of local linguistic ecologies.

Until today, tourism has become one of the most important pillars of the economy and a huge influx of visitors has a great effect on both tourists and destinations. The presence of written signs in tourist spaces remains essential in the long run, particularly for their economic and social implications, which contribute to strengthening a country's economy. Language in tourist spaces offers different perspectives from which the sociocultural influences brought by tourists can be observed and studied over time since it provides significant impact towards the LL (Shang, 2018). As Thurlow and Jaworski (2011, p.287) note, tourism is "...an intensely social and communicative business in which it is highly flexible, constantly reflexive and deeply semiotic," making it an ideal lens for studying globalisation and identity.

Together with the creative appearance of LL in the tourism industry, the sociolinguistic value of it has drawn considerable academic attention around the world (Bruyel-Olmedo & Juan-Garau, 2015; Shang, 2018; Touchstone, Koslow, Shamdasani, & D'Alessandro, 2017), a field that is certainly worth expanding as part of future LL studies.

Despite this growing interest, research focusing on Malaysian tourism spaces remains limited. Most LL studies in Malaysia have centred on urban or commercial areas such as Kuala Lumpur and Penang, with comparatively little attention paid to how language use in tourist destinations reflects both local identity and global influence. Given Malaysia's multicultural and multilingual context, it is necessary to investigate how these languages are represented and function within local tourist spaces. Therefore, this study addresses this gap by analysing the LL of Malaysian tourist sites to better understand how tourism practices shape linguistic representation and identity construction in the public sphere. Unlike existing studies which have focused predominantly on heritage districts in Penang and commercial areas in Kuala Lumpur, this study examines three geographically and contextually distinct tourist sites in Perak, employing a multi-source mixed-methods approach that integrates visual analysis, policy document review, semi-structured interviews with sign creators and enforcement officers, and survey questionnaire data. This comprehensive approach provides a more nuanced and contextually grounded understanding of how the LL of Malaysian tourist spaces is shaped by the interplay of regulatory requirements, commercial motivations, and the multilingual expectations of diverse visitor groups.

2.4 Linguistic Landscape and Language Policy

The increase of language signs within varieties of LL such as street names, advertisements, information boards, and official government signage has become an increasingly investigated topic among scholars (Alomoush & Al Khalaf, 2023; Anuarudin, 2017; Koschade, 2016; Rubdy & Ben Said, 2015; Tang, 2016; Torkington & Oliveira, 2022). Interest in language use on public signs started in the early 1970s, which marked the starting point for the field of language policy and planning. Currently, language policy has become one of the domains significantly addressed by LL studies. LL is known to be an instrument through which language policy is reflected (Dal Negro, 2009). Most countries have implemented rules pertaining to public space policies that

cover different fields of study such as schooling, media, and socio-economic studies. Based on several studies conducted, language policy has impacted the language use and appears to have a strong connection with the LL (Cenoz & Gorter, 2006; Manan et al., 2015; Spolsky, 2004; Taylor-Leech, 2012). Previous studies also found that "LL is not only a way to show the realities of language use, but also a window to see the tension between practices, beliefs, and management in language policy, particularly in a multilingual society" (Wang & Xu, 2018, p.106).

Shohamy (2006) posited that LL is one of the mechanisms that functions to expose hidden and tacit language planning. Previous research discovered that most language policy failed to be implemented in real practices, leading the LL to be incoherent (Du Plessis, 2007). Furthermore, Du Plessis (2012, p.563) proposed two schools of thought on the issue of language policy: (1) intervention of language policy in the LL as a desirable outcome of language planning; and (2) the causal relationship between language policy and LL is not inherently unidirectional or one-dimensional. These issues may lead to inconsistent regulation of policies, which is consistent with Shohamy's (2006) observation that language policies are frequently viewed as representations of language practice; nevertheless, what is stated in the policy may not necessarily be carried out by communities or individuals in reality. It is therefore pertinent to investigate whether similar patterns of policy-practice tension emerge in the LL of tourist spaces in Malaysia's multilingual context, and to what extent the stipulated language policy is reflected in actual practices at the selected tourist sites.

Another core issue related to policy is the agency or authorship. In most cases, government agencies normally regulate the policies on the use of signs and are therefore part of what is classified as 'top-down' in the studies cited. It is also crucial to consider the relationship between policy and actual practice in LLs, especially the distinction between top-down and bottom-up contributions that leads to a fuller comprehension of policy (Master, 2012; Shohamy, 2006). The top-down flow of LL reflects authorities' language preference, whereas bottom-up signs display preferences that are accepted and implemented by the majority of the population (Puzey, 2012). Ben-Rafael et al. (2006) highlighted the significance of differentiating between top-down and bottom-up signs since they are produced by different actors for different audiences. The researchers further elaborated that top-down signs mostly serve official policies, while bottom-up signs are flexible and designed without strict restriction. Most countries have

established stricter legislative initiatives in relation to implementing the right measures in language use on public displays. For instance, in Quebec and Belgium, language policies are enforced to defend the status, use, and visibility of French and Dutch respectively in public displays (Van Mensel, Vandenbroucke, & Blackwood, 2016, p.434). French visibility can therefore be seen in all aspects of public signs of both official and commercial nature. This has emerged as the starting point where language policy in relation to LL has continued to serve as a vibrant and ongoing topic in LL studies (Van Mensel et al., 2016).

In Tokyo, by contrast, people in the 1980s found themselves increasingly exposed to what Backhaus (2009, p.162) describes as the "…pressure of internationalisation". In response to this, in 1991 the Tokyo government took steps to make public signs more accessible for diverse readers, stipulating written policies in the Tokyo manual regarding official signs. With the new legislation, all public governmental signs were displayed with Latinised writing and transliterated names. The contrasting cases of Quebec and Tokyo illustrate that government intervention in the LL can take radically different forms depending on the socio-political context either protectionist, as in Quebec's defence of French, or internationalist, as in Tokyo's embrace of Latinised scripts. Both cases demonstrate that LL is never politically neutral but always reflects the ideological priorities of the governing authority. This insight is particularly relevant to the Malaysian context, where BM's prominence in signage policy reflects a post-colonial nation-building ideology that must be balanced against the practical communicative needs of a multilingual, tourism-oriented society.

Another study on LL and language policy was conducted by Cenoz and Gorter (2006), who compared the LL in Friesland (the Netherlands) and the Basque Country (Spain). They investigated the use of the minority language (Basque or Frisian), the language of the state (Spanish or Dutch), and English as a foreign language. The language displays were analysed quantitatively to determine the number of language use, the prominence of languages, and the characteristics of bilingual and multilingual signs. Findings revealed that the language policy related to minority languages were reflected in the linguistic landscape. Similarly, in Malaysia, a study by Wang and Xu, (2018) explored the minority languages in relation to language policy. Data were obtained from two major streets in Chinatown and Little India, Kuala Lumpur. The results indicate that the linguistic practices of the two ethnic minorities deviated from

the state's language policy requirement that BM should be prioritised. The mismatch between state policies and minority community practices was attributed to economic motivations and the communities' efforts to retain their identity and preferred language for daily communication.

Ben Said (2010) also studied the inconsistencies between the language policy and the actual LL practice in Tunisia. The complexity of the LL in Tunisia generally failed to reflect the consistency of the stipulated language policy and the actual practice. Although the state policy favoured monolingualism in Arabic, the reality differed as the government adopted a policy of conciliation, causing tensions and negotiations between the languages of the state and the languages used in practice. Likewise, Beh (2017) conducted a LL study focusing on language policy and planning in George Town, Penang. The findings revealed that Penang Road is extremely multilingual, with several languages apparent in the LL. Although BM is advocated as the national language and is required to be displayed prominently under signage regulations, actual practices demonstrate the opposite.

The studies reviewed above collectively demonstrate a recurring pattern in multilingual contexts in which official language policy frequently diverges from actual practices, and this divergence is shaped by a complex interplay of economic motivations, identity assertion, and enforcement limitations. While some studies find evidence of policy compliance (Cenoz & Gorter, 2006; Manan et al., 2015), others reveal significant deviation particularly among private sign creators operating in commercially competitive environments (Anuarudin, 2017; Beh, 2017; Wang & Xu, 2018). This variation in policy compliance, determined by sign authorship, governance context, and the strength of enforcement mechanisms, forms one of the central concerns of the present study, which examines whether similar patterns are evident in the LL of tourist spaces in Perak.

Such scenarios are not unique to Malaysia but reflect a broader pattern observed across multilingual contexts worldwide. Although legislation pertaining to the use of BM as the official language has been implemented, the reality often differs from what has been directed by the relevant authorities. This is in line with Shohamy's (2006) observation that a policy does not simply indicate that it is followed and practised precisely. She further stresses that language use can sometimes be in contrast with policy regulations, triggering a tension between top-down and bottom-up forces. In

most cases, policy makers introduce policies through top-down forces, while those who resist following standard rules may apply their language ideologies through bottom-up forces (Shohamy, 2006). As the studies reviewed above confirm, this tension between policy prescription and actual practice is not confined to any single national context but is a structural feature of multilingual societies with formal language policy frameworks.

Shohamy (2015) further expands the LL study in relation to policy and highlights the importance of areas that need to be investigated and discussed. She acknowledged that LL has proven to be a valuable instrument for language restoration, for documenting multilingualism in unique social environments, for emphasising the importance of multimodal monuments, and for analysing locally constructed policies. Shohamy also offered insights that stress the influential role of LL in enhancing awareness of language policy and fostering advocacy among the people subjected to the policies addressed.

Language policy is therefore one of the strongest pillars in bringing about change in the LL. It is notwithstanding that language policy must be strictly taken into consideration since it has the potential to create "… a change in regime that can bring about a shift in the LL so that the LL then becomes one of the most 'vocal' and concrete indicators of consequential language regime change" (Du Plessis, 2010, p.74). A detailed investigation is therefore needed, and this study seeks to examine the consistency between the LL of the selected tourist areas and the stipulated language policy. This study also incorporates the investigation of sign creators' perceptions of the language policy in order to provide a springboard towards a detailed inspection of the LL within the local tourist context.

A critical examination of the methods used in prior LL-policy studies reveals several limitations that the present study seeks to address. Most existing studies examining the relationship between language policy and LL practice have relied primarily on visual sign documentation and frequency analysis (Anuarudin, 2017; Beh, 2017; Manan et al., 2015; Wang & Xu, 2018). While these approaches effectively establish the degree of surface-level compliance or non-compliance, they are limited in their ability to explain why compliance patterns take the form they do and that is, whether non-compliance reflects deliberate resistance, lack of awareness, inadequate enforcement, or commercial necessity. The absence of interview data from sign creators and enforcement officers in most prior Malaysian LL-policy studies means that the

motivational dimension of policy compliance remains underexplored. Furthermore, these studies have tended to examine single sites or single sign types — billboards in the Klang Valley (Anuarudin, 2017), shopfront signs in Petaling Jaya (Manan et al., 2015), or street signs in Penang (Beh, 2017), which limits their generalisability to other contexts including tourist spaces. The present study addresses these methodological limitations by triangulating visual sign documentation with policy document analysis, semi-structured interviews with both sign creators and enforcement officers, and survey questionnaire data, as described in Chapter 3.

The literature reviewed in this section establishes that language policy and LL are deeply interrelated, with policy serving as both a prescriptive framework for language display and an ideological instrument for projecting national identity. However, as numerous studies demonstrate, the relationship between policy and practice is rarely straightforward since it is mediated by governance structures, commercial imperatives, ethnic identity, and enforcement capacity. For the present study, this insight frames RQ3, which investigates the consistency between actual practice and stipulated language policies pertaining to the LL of selected tourist sites in Perak. The review also highlights that tourist spaces, as commercial environments subject to both regulatory and market demands, represent a distinctive and analytically productive context for examining how language policy is translated, negotiated, or resisted in practice.

2.4.1 Language Policy in Malaysia

Although general language policy may not be directly relevant to the LL or the signage policy, providing a background of language policy and planning can help explain the significance languages assume in Malaysia's complex socio-linguistic, socio-economic, and socio-political landscape (Beh, 2017; Manan et al., 2015). The way Malaysian national language policies have evolved historically and politically has had a direct impact on language policy formulation and language preference for signage policy. Hence, to comprehend issues related to signage policy, a detailed explanation of language policy is needed to contextualise the study.

In 1951, English was the official language of colonial Malaya, whereas BM, Mandarin, and Tamil were considered vernaculars. Following independence in 1957, a consensus reached among the dominant groups resulted in BM being recognised as the national language, which was seen as a sign of national unity and identity. With three primary ethnic groups, the Malays, Indians, and Chinese, a national language was viewed as the binding factor to guarantee a seamless transition from British ruling. Since Malays were the majority in Malaysia, it was an indisputable choice for BM to be the national and official language. Another reason for the selection of BM was due to its role as a lingua franca, reflecting its position as the main inter-ethnic communication before and after independence (Asmah, 1996). Furthermore, BM was known to be the most evolved language in terms of its role as the language of administration, high culture, literary knowledge, and religion among all other indigenous languages spoken in Malaysia. Economic purposes have also influenced the declaration of BM as the country's official and educational language.

The gradual institutionalisation of BM in comparison to English as the official language, which was utilised in government, education, and other formal spheres in the country created dissatisfaction among Malay nationalists. This has prompted a demand for a status change. The notion that English came to be viewed not just as the language of colonial education, but also as an impediment to the majority of Malays' educational, social, and economic progress spurred the desire for BM to be accorded a higher status than English. The official status of BM as the language of higher status was therefore confirmed by Article 152 of the Malaysian constitution. In terms of language policy, it was also geared towards national sentiment since the newly independent government was dominated by Malay politicians, even though the ruling party was a coalition of three main parties made up of UMNO (United Malays National Organization), MCA (Malaysian Chinese Association), and MIC (Malaysian Indian Congress).

It is known that Malaysian language policy is marked by constant 'twists and turns' (Manan et al., 2015). This can be seen in the variations and shifts in language policy and planning. Similar to other multilingual post-colonial nations, Malaysia has also confronted typical postcolonial difficulties. One of the challenges involved preserving and promoting Malay nationalism while recognising the pragmatic, academic, and global significance of English. Another difficulty is finding a way to balance policies to accommodate other significant ethnic groups, such as the Chinese

and Indian communities (Martin, 2005 cited in Manan, 2015). This has caused discontent among minority groups which prompted an equal demand in the language policies. However, a dramatic shift in policy occurred in post-1970, with BM replacing English in all English medium schools that existed before and after independence. According to Manan et al. (2015, p.34), the policy's ethos was described as "an effort to foster a common national identity and a nationalistic spirit among its multiracial citizenry". Since then, English language was demoted to the status of a second language.

The historical trajectory of language policy in Malaysia reveals a clear pattern: BM has been consistently positioned as the primary medium of national identity and official communication, while other languages, including English, have been progressively repositioned from languages of power to languages of supplementary use. This ideological positioning of BM has directly shaped the signage policy examined in this study, as the requirement for BM prominence on outdoor signs reflects not merely a regulatory preference but a broader nation-building agenda that continues to influence the LL of public spaces in Malaysia, including tourist sites. The historical evolution of language policy in Malaysia therefore provides the essential socio-political background against which the signage policy provisions examined in the following section must be understood. It is within this broader ideological context that the specific regulatory requirements governing outdoor signs in Malaysia derive their authority and significance.

2.4.1.1 Signage Policy

Despite several shifts and revisions in language policy, the official regulation on signs and advertisements remains unchanged. The law controlling the use of language on signs and advertisements was enacted in 1972 and amended later in 2007 (GOM, 1972–2007). Signage policies were developed to maintain BM's status in the advertising policy. The National Language Act (Akta Bahasa Kebangsaan) of 1963 and Article 152(1) of the Malaysian Constitution have established the basis for other government organisations, institutions, and agencies to adopt their own language policy. This includes the Malaysian advertising language policy, under which the laws stipulate the use of BM as the national language, as well as the permissible use of other

languages in advertisements, including billboards. The following is the description of the policy's provisions:

> "(1) The national language shall be the Malay language and shall be in such script as Parliament may by law provide:
>
> Provided that-
>
> (a) no person shall be prohibited or prevented from using (otherwise than for official purposes), or from teaching or learning, any other language; and
>
> (b) nothing in this clause shall prejudice the right of the Federal Government or of any State Government to preserve and sustain the use and study of the language of any other community in the Federation."
>
> (Federal Constitution of Malaysia, Article 152)

Although the laws permit the use of other language(s), it is clear from the policy documents that the use of BM is still emphasised and prioritised. However, the constitution nonetheless recognises the right to use other languages in non-official contexts, reflecting the inherently multilingual character of Malaysian society while maintaining BM's primacy as the official and national language.

The language policy for advertisements is further regulated by the Malaysian subsidiary of the Local Council by-laws (Undang-undang kecil Majlis Perbandaran) and the National Language Act (Akta Bahasa Kebangsaan). According to the by-laws, BM must be used on all public signboards, including billboards and road names. The Advertisement by-law of the Municipal Council, which falls under the authority of the state government, stipulates the following rules:

> (1) The national language shall be used for all advertisements whether by itself or together with any other language.
>
> (2) If the national language is used with any other language in an advertisement, the words in the national language shall be—(a) Thirty percent larger than the other language in measurement; (b) Prominently displayed; and (c) Grammatically correct.

(3) Any person who fails to comply with paragraph (1) or (2) shall be guilty of an offense and shall upon conviction be liable to a fine not exceeding two thousand ringgit or to imprisonment not exceeding one year or both.

This official policy not only requires the inclusion of BM on signage but also mandates that BM must be prominently displayed when used alongside other languages and must be written in grammatically correct form. Other languages, such as English, Mandarin, or Tamil, are not subject to such detailed prescriptions. The policy mandating the dominance of BM in outdoor signage has a direct and significant influence on the LL of Malaysia, including in tourist sites. The signage policy provisions outlined above establish three specific and measurable requirements that serve as the analytical baseline for RQ3 in this study: first, BM must appear on all outdoor signs; second, when used alongside other languages, BM must be displayed at least thirty percent larger in font size; and third, BM must be written in grammatically correct form. These three requirements are directly operationalised in the visual analysis conducted in Chapter 4, where the actual practices documented across the three selected tourist sites are evaluated against each of these provisions to determine the degree of policy-practice consistency. As the literature reviewed in Section 2.4 demonstrates, the existence of a clear policy does not guarantee its implementation in practice, and it is precisely this tension that RQ3 seeks to illuminate through the examination of outdoor signs in Perak's tourist spaces.

2.5 Linguistic Landscape Actors

The formation and perception of LL are influenced by a variety of actors. According to Ben-Rafael et al. (2006, p.9), LL actors are known as '…those who concretely contribute to the creation of the LL by ordering from others or developing LL elements on their own, based on preference tendencies, deliberate decisions, or policies". They further elaborate that "…LL analysis focuses at the same time on the simultaneous acts of institutions and autonomous actors which together give shape to the linguistics of public space" (p.10). In this respect, a wide variety of actors are involved in shaping the LL. The first category of actors according to Ben-Rafael et al. (2006) is formed by businesses or individuals that create signs. Whether it is the choice of an immigrant shopkeeper or the head office of a large company, store signage is most

often placed by shop owners. These players are collectively responsible for 'furnishing' the LL with linguistic elements that promote the selling of certain commodities or services. It is fair to expect that their decisions will be influenced by market factors (Edelman, 2010). Another form of actor is a private individual who uses posters, placards, banners, stickers, and other materials to inform potential clients of their presence, publicise events, or spread a social or political message. These individuals may also represent a company, a political party, or another organisation.

The authorities are also known to be a special actor that contributes to the construction of LL. They may be referred to as municipal, district council, or public institution authorities. These authorities are part of what is referred to as 'language management', a term that denotes any implicit or explicit language intervention and planning to reinforce or change language beliefs and practices (Alomoush, 2015). For instance, they post signs indicating the location of their public buildings. In relation to tourism, authorities may also place signs specifically for tourists; however, this role may alternatively be delegated to an independent tourism bureau. In the Malaysian context, language choice on signs is subject to the Local Council by-laws (Undang-Undang Kecil Majlis Perbandaran) and the National Language Act (Akta Bahasa Kebangsaan), which stipulate that BM should appear prominently on all signs. More detailed rules have been established for different districts in different states. These regulations govern the legality of business signage on the fronts of buildings as well as other forms of advertising. In all cases, the authorities must provide legal permission based on precise drawings and descriptions related to signage. Furthermore, each new advertisement in BM must be inspected and approved by the Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka (DBP), or the Institute of Language and Literature, before it can be approved by the city or municipal council (a government agency coordinating the use of BM and literature in Malaysia). Thus, the authorities have the power to decide what is and is not acceptable in the LL and anything that degrades the 'quality of public space' will be penalised.

Although DBP plays a vital role in approving the linguistic quality of BM usage on outdoor signage, DBP officials were not included as interview participants in the present study. This decision was made on methodological grounds: DBP's role in the signage approval process is specifically to verify the linguistic accuracy and grammatical correctness of BM text, which is subsequently implemented and enforced

at the district level by the relevant local councils. Since the study's interviews with enforcement officers captured the perspectives of local authorities (the bodies directly responsible for regulating signage compliance in the selected tourist sites), DBP's regulatory influence is represented indirectly through the accounts of these institutional intermediaries.

Recent studies have expanded the definition of actors in LL research to include not only sign producers but also sign interpreters or readers. This broader view acknowledges that meaning in the LL is co-constructed through social interaction, as readers actively interpret, negotiate, and circulate the messages conveyed in public signage (Blommaert, 2013; Malinowski, 2019; Scollon & Scollon, 2003). Sign interpreters such as passers-by, visitors, and residents play a crucial role in shaping the visibility and social relevance of signs through everyday engagement with them (Ben-Rafael et al., 2006; Shohamy & Gorter, 2009). In this sense, the LL is not merely a static collection of signs, but a dynamic communicative space influenced by both textual display and human interaction. For example, consumers' reactions toward commercial signage, such as deciding whether or not to purchase a product, demonstrate how readers' responses can indirectly determine the success and visibility of certain linguistic and symbolic choices.

The actors involved are therefore significant in analysing the 'forces and drives' that contribute to the construction of the LL, specifically in the selected tourist spaces. Examining actors' behaviours and language choices in constructing signs in public spaces provides further insights into how the LL is shaped (Alomoush, 2015). This highlights the role of authorship in the LL, where the source of a sign can be determined by examining the prominence of one code over another as a marker of the intentions and identity of the sign producer (Malinowski, 2009). Even though a wide variety of actors are involved in shaping the LL, in most cases these actors belong to two main forces which are 'top-down' and 'bottom-up'. The former is categorised according to their affiliation with official, legal, medical, and educational institutions, whilst the latter includes those established by business owners and private individuals. In attempting to analyse the 'forces and drives' of the tourism linguistic diversity, a contrast between government and non-government LL items, or top-down and bottom-up indicators, is therefore both methodologically necessary and analytically beneficial in the present study.

2.6 Linguistic Landscape and Multilingualism

Wei (2000, p.7) defines multilingualism as "the use of more than one language, either by an individual speaker or by a community of speakers". In the context of LL, multilingualism becomes visible in public spaces where signs display a range of linguistic choices. These visual displays not only mirror language diversity but also provide insight into broader cultural, social, political, and economic dynamics (Manan et al., 2015; Shohamy et al., 2010). Duchene (2009) notes that multilingualism in LL often reflects the negotiation between multicultural realities and institutional ideologies, making it a rich field of study. Accordingly, many LL studies have focused on multilingual contexts, driven by the need to demonstrate how the representation of multiple languages and other elements shapes the construction of the LL.

In Malaysia, where multilingualism is deeply embedded in society, LL serves as a lens to examine how languages interact in everyday life. Wang et al. (2015) investigated how different identities are constructed through the use of various languages. Their research contrasted two separate areas of Kuala Lumpur, namely China Town and Little India. The results showed that there is a strong presence of English in signage in both China Town and Brickfields. Another LL study conducted by Husin et al. (2019), where a synchronic analysis of digitally captured commercial store signage was carried out in three different areas of Kuala Lumpur, focusing on language use patterns. Based on the findings, multilingual store signs dominated the retail streets in and around Kuala Lumpur, with English being more prominent than the national language or other languages. There was also a presence of foreign languages, which provided linguistic diversity in cityscapes. These studies demonstrate that Malaysian LL is both multilingual and hierarchical, representing multiple elements that are utilised and represented in diverse ways. The reviewed Malaysian LL studies consistently show that English occupies a symbolically elevated position in public spaces despite policy requirements favouring BM. This structural tension between market-driven language choices and regulatory mandates is particularly relevant to the present study, as tourist spaces, shaped by both commercial demands and visitor demographics, are likely to intensify rather than resolve it.

In analysing the LL of multilingualism, previous LL studies have relied on qualitative and quantitative analysis. For example, researchers such as Scollon and

Scollon (2003) and Reh (2004) used qualitative analysis methods, while Ben-Rafael et al. (2006) and Huebner (2009) applied quantitative research methods in their LL studies. Backhaus (2007), by contrast, applied both methodological approaches in analysing the LL of Tokyo, yielding more comprehensive findings. There are various ways in which LL items are characterised within the literature in order to make data collection and analysis more systematic and to contribute to an understanding of the motivations behind language choices in public spaces. Dissecting these terms is therefore significant in clarifying the aims of the LL study.

The dynamic nature of tourism in Malaysia has led this research to adopt and integrate different theoretical and methodological frameworks from previous LL studies. Tourist spaces often display multilingual signs to cater to both local communities and international visitors. Since this research encounters multilingual texts within the tourist spaces, integrating theoretical and methodological frameworks from various studies seems necessary. This is to discover how language, its features, policy, and public's perception are used and presented to reveal meaning, real-life practices, as well as the sociolinguistic dynamics of the tourist spaces studied. Among the adapted frameworks are dimension of space by Trumper-Hecht (2010), sign type by Edelman (2010), sign categories by Huebner (2009), language features by Cenoz and Gorter (2010), code preference by Scollon and Scollon (2003), preference model by Spolsky and Cooper (1991), as well as Anuarudin's (2017) types of text composition developed from Reh's (2004) typology of multilingual writing. This study adapts these approaches to provide a systematic analytical pathway for examining the LL of the selected tourist sites. The current study gleans from the previous studies' findings and builds upon them, which allows for a more contextually sensitive and methodologically robust examination of how signs are produced, displayed, and perceived in the selected tourist areas.

2.6.1 Trumper-Hecht's (2010) Dimensions of Space

The study on LL of tourist sites in Perak brings a new perspective, especially for Malaysia where not much studies have been carried out in the field of tourism. The influence of multilingualism, globalisation, and the COVID-19 pandemic has brought new and complex experiences into people's lives, shaping the spaces they inhabit and

the languages they encounter in those spaces. Despite the changes on the display of different languages on sites, it also changes the way the policy makers regulate signs and how the "inhabitants" view them (Wang, 2015). Therefore, this scenario is worth investigating, which would also help to enrich the field of LL research. However, this study is not intended to compare or contrast the LL of different tourist sites. Instead, it aims to investigate the LL of tourist sites from three perspectives mentioned earlier: the types and linguistic features of signs (spatial dimension), language policy and actual signage practices (conceived dimension), and the public's perceptions of the LL (lived dimension). The combination of these aspects would create an in-depth understanding of the LL that is seen as part of the 'sociolinguistic-spatial' phenomenon (Trumper-Hecht, 2010).

The current LL study is framed by the three main categories adapted from Trumper-Hecht's (2010) three dimensions of space. She adapted three dimensions of space proposed by Lefebvre in 'The Production of Space' (1991, p.237), elaborating that the 'spatial space' can be seen as the physical dimension that demonstrates the actual distribution of languages on signs. The 'conceived space' or known as political dimension reflects the views and ideologies of policy makers whose policies shape the LL, which this refers to the policy and regulations implemented in the tourist sites. Finally, the 'lived space', which can be seen as the experiential dimension that reflects the attitudes and perceptions of inhabitants and users towards the LL encountered.

The framework was also adapted by Wang (2015) in his LL study, where he examined the linguistic signs displayed on campus of Kyushu University, Japan. Wang (2015) also explored students' perceptions regarding the use of Japanese and English signs that constitute the LL of the university. Other frameworks were also integrated in Wang's study for further analysis such as Hymes' 'Speaking Model' (1972) and Scollon and Scollon's (2003) work of geosemiotics. The data were then triangulated from each perspective to enrich the descriptive analysis of the campuses. Another study that framed similar framework of Trumper-Hecht (2010) was conducted by Woo and Riget (2020). Both researchers studied the LL in the two terminals of the Kuala Lumpur International Airport as well as the sign reader's perception related to policy making and actual representation of the airport.

Based on these two prominent studies, the adaptation of this framework is relevant in building a holistic approach towards investigating the LL that covers not

only the physical representation, but also inclusion of other vital elements (policy and perception) that influence the creation of LL. These three dimensions substantiate the understanding of the formation of the whole LL. By analysing the languages displayed in terms of their size, arrangement, and position, it is possible to reveal how the interpretations and ideologies of the sign makers are manifested in the LL. Indeed, when exploring a study on sign, there must be a process of information transfer between the sign and the receiver of the information to feed the purpose of the display (Lim, Rosman, & Goh, 2012). Hence, users' perspective is also essential in assessing the function of the sign. After all, one should not simply see what is presented in the LL as it is sometimes failed to completely represent the reality of the linguistic situations of the observed area (Ben Said, 2010). This has been a common finding for both Landry and Bourhis (1997) as well as Cenoz and Gorter's (2006) studies. Significant issues such as what leads to its development, how languages are regulated or shown in a given area, and how people respond to the environment should be analysed and evaluated further (Wang, 2015, as cited in Woo & Riget, 2020).

In lieu of this, it is relevant for this study to adapt the three dimensions of space framework by Trumper-Hecht (2010) as the main taxonomy, which is believed to further enrich the LL of tourism. Other integrated frameworks that complement Trumper-Hecht (2010) such as sign type by Edelman (2010), sign categories by Huebner (2009), language features by Cenoz and Gorter (2010), code preference by Scollon and Scollon (2003), preference model by Spolsky and Cooper (1991), as well as Anuarudin's (2017) types of text composition are also discussed in the next section. The three-dimensional spatial framework of Trumper-Hecht (2010) is particularly well-suited to tourism LL context because tourist spaces are actively constructed sites where regulatory requirements, commercial motivations, and visitor expectations converge and sometimes conflict. By simultaneously examining what is displayed (spatial), what policy requires (conceived), and how visitors respond (lived), this study is able to capture the full sociolinguistic complexity of tourist signage in a way that no single-dimensional approach could achieve. This justification for the framework selection is elaborated further in Chapter 3, where the analytical operationalisation of each dimension is described in relation to the specific data collection and analysis methods applied.

2.6.2 Geographic Distribution and Unit of Analysis

Interpreting the LL is a complex task, and various methods have been applied to explore and understand the trends found over the years. The most significant feature of LLs is the covered areas, which can be used to define and identify the linguistic boundaries of a certain area (Ben-Rafael et al., 2006). By analysing the LL of the investigated areas, it can aid in determining the effect and penetration of multilingualism in a culture (Cenoz & Gorter, 2006; Huebner, 2006); analysing the semiotics (Lou, 2007; Stroud & Mpendukana, 2009), and testing sociolinguistic theories (Ben-Rafael et al., 2006).

The data collection process is fundamental when interpreting the LL and is largely based on images taken from the investigated areas. Geographic distribution of the languages used on signs has been addressed by several LL studies. One of the most common challenges that researchers struggle with during data collection concerns with the boundaries of the geographic areas to investigate. The questions that preoccupy most researchers are "how to choose?" and "what is the most relevant focal geographical area?" (Hult, 2014, p. 511). To secure a concrete method for data collection, Backhaus (2006), who has contributed significantly to LL methodology, proposed several ideas related to methods and techniques. Based on his studies on train stations at the centre of Tokyo, he included two methodological procedures: the geographic limits of the survey areas and a clear determination of the survey items. In his observational study, Backhaus (2006, p.54) identified twenty-eight stations of the Yamanote Line, known as 'a circular line'. This circular line determined the overall boundaries of the survey area, while each individual survey unit was defined as the stretch of street between two consecutive traffic lights.

Within the study, Backhaus (2007, p.66) acknowledged a methodological gap in data collection, expressed in the observation that "…the distances between the traffic lights differ greatly from nearly 65 metres in the Okachimachi survey area to 400 metres in the Shinagawa survey area". In response, Tufi and Blackwood (2010) and Blackwood (2011) sought to overcome this methodological gap by developing a data collection technique based on a 50-metre segment of the chosen streets, indicating that the distance can be calculated roughly by counting steps. Gorter (2018) considered this approach more systematic compared to the former method, although the methodological decision

may still pose challenges, specifically with the issue of approximate stretches. These methodological refinements collectively demonstrate that geographic boundary decisions in LL research are not merely technical choices but analytical ones, as the boundaries drawn directly determine what counts as data and what is excluded. For the present study, the three selected tourist sites, each possess relatively well-defined spatial boundaries as managed recreational spaces, which makes the challenge of geographic delimitation more tractable than it would be in an open urban environment. The data collection boundaries for each site are described precisely in Chapter 3, in line with Yavari's (2012) recommendation that survey sites be reported in terms of how and why they were chosen.

Apart from train stations, there are other researchers who collect data from signs in large urban areas, considering streets and other dominant commercial as well as entertainment districts (e.g., Hult, 2009; Moriarty, 2012). Some select a more restricted environment such as a learning institution (e.g., Shohamy et al., 2012; Wang, 2015; Yavari, 2012) and shopping malls (e.g., Coluzzi, 2017; Trumper-Hecht, 2010). Shohamy (2015, p.165) also pointed out the importance of neighbourhood as a survey area when she examined the LL of two neighbourhoods as smaller units than the city of Tel Aviv Jaffa. She argues that "neighbourhood identities are creating a meaningful connection among the community within the territorial space". Blackwood (2015) argued that the choice of survey area remains problematic as it is not always clear how LL researchers choose their survey areas. However, according to Yavari (2012), reporting the sites precisely in terms of how and why they are chosen may help to minimise the problem in selecting the survey sites regardless of the size of the survey site.

Despite the selection of survey sites, another crucial criterion to be highlighted and described in a LL methodology is the unit of analysis. In terms of determining clear survey items, there is currently no single definition shared by linguistic landscapers, although this has been considered one of the major problems faced by many LL studies. The majority of studies have focused on text displayed in general; however, some have concentrated on one particular type of LL item. These include graffiti (Papen, 2012; Pennycook, 2009; Piller, 2010), billboards (Anuarudin, 2017; Tulp, 1978), and shop signs and proper names (Jaworski, 2015; Puzey, 2012; Schlick, 2003). There are other researchers who analyse items that include all inscriptions on both fixed and movable

objects as the main items of analysis (Reh, 2004). As for Cenoz and Gorter (2006, p.67), all displayed texts are counted as a single object regardless of the size or type of establishment. Researchers have also attempted to collect a representative cross-section of one or more geographic areas, as reflected in Blackwood and Tufi's (2015) study across several Mediterranean cities.

For a sign to be classified or codified, adopting the right definition of the 'unit of analysis' is necessary in LL study. Many current studies have adopted Backhaus' (2007) physical definition of survey items, which is widely accepted among researchers. According to Blackwood (2015), the concept suggested by Backhaus (2007, p.66) — referring to "any piece of text within a spatially definable frame" — is followed by many of those conducting quantitative analysis. His monograph represents the first comprehensive approach to tackling the multilingualism environment in LL research and has helped to overcome the unit of analysis challenges faced by many researchers. Nonetheless, some scholars opted for other alternatives after considering some difficulties in terms of "the larger whole of the establishment as the unit of analysis" (Cenoz & Gorter, 2006, p.71). For instance, Cenoz and Gorter (2006) define all signs in one establishment to be one unit, and Kallen (2009, p.277) acknowledges "a single visible unified presentation" as unit of analysis. There is also the occurrence of repetition in some cases of unit analysis. For instance, a shop may have its name repeated numerous times on its front (Laitinen, 2014).

Another related issue with the unit of analysis concerns whether the sign belongs to a fixed or non-fixed category. Backhaus (2007, p.67) only considered signs that are fixed on a carrier. Other LL researchers, such as Sebba (2010), have argued for the inclusion of non-fixed mobile signs such as newspapers, t-shirts, banknotes or bus tickets and this approach has been followed by Dunlevy (2012, p.4) and Moriarty (2014, p.468; 2015, p.203), who both decided to include non-stationary signs. However, according to Gorter (2018), none of the researchers have included digital screens as part of the unit analysis in their studies.

The debates reviewed in this section reveal that decisions about geographic boundaries and units of analysis are among the most consequential methodological choices in any LL study, as they determine the scope, comparability, and replicability of the findings. Although no universal standard exists in defining the unit of analysis, Backhaus's (2007) physical definition has been widely accepted and adopted by many

LL researchers, particularly in quantitative studies. This makes it a reliable and consistent framework for the present study, as it allows for systematic data collection across the three selected tourist sites while ensuring that the findings remain comparable with existing Malaysian LL studies that have adopted the same definitional framework.

To overcome the unit analysis challenges faced by previous studies, this study therefore adopts the definition proposed by Backhaus (2007). The definition proposed is best suited for this study as it provides a systematic and replicable method for analysing multilingual text composition in Malaysian tourist sites. Other combined methods and frameworks are discussed further in the following section.

2.6.3 Categorising and Documenting Signs in the Linguistic Landscape

Due to the large number of signs in the LL scene, it is vital for the elements to be organised and categorised. Different scholars have provided different taxonomies within their scope of studies. For instance, Gorter (2006, p.3) indicates different elements that should be taken into account when constructing a taxonomy such as "…how the sign language appears, the position, the size, font and order, the number of sign languages, as well as the relative importance on whether the text was fully or partially interpreted". Spolsky and Cooper (2006, p.76) differentiated eight major types of signs in the Old City of Jerusalem: street signs, advertising signs, warning notices and prohibitions, building names, informative signs (directions, hours of opening), commemorative plaques, objects, and graffiti; and Ben-Rafael et al. (2006, p.15) categorised private signs into different types including clothing and leisure, food, house-ware, and private offices, while governmental signs were categorised into different types of institution known as religious, governmental, municipal, cultural, educational, and public health. There are some who used Landry and Bourhis' (1997) definition in categorising signs such as road signs, billboards, street names, place names, shop signs, and signs on government buildings. However, their attention was only on how signs could add to the ethnolinguisticvatality of an area. Spolsky (2009) refined and expanded Landry and Bourhis' (1997) definition by suggesting inclusion of more categories such as street signs, advertising signs, warning notices and prohibitions, building names, informative signs, commemorative plaques, objects and graffiti. This has created a more holistic view of LL that encompasses all potential language instances.

In similar vein, Edelman (2010) suggested few categories since including anything from handwritten stickers to commercial billboards is rather broad, and each sign is best counted as one item regardless of its size. Based on Edelman's (2010) suggestion, signs can be coded in the following categories: (1) survey area; (2) government or private sign; (3) type of establishment (e.g., a shop, a restaurant or a bank; also signs which do not belong to an establishment such as stickers); (4) name of establishment; (5) sector of shop; (6) part of chain or independent; (7) type of sign such as name of establishment, security information, street sign, nameplate, sticker, poster, or graffiti; and (8) number of languages and their ordering on the sign. Huebnar (2009) also revealed a detailed method in categorising signs, specifically pointing out different genres and functions that could help to address problems during the coding process. The following categorisation is proposed by Huebner (2009, p.75): (a) expressive signs that convey emotions or feelings; (b) directive signs that offer recommendations, advice, or attempt to persuade; (c) informational signs that report, describe, or inform; (d) interactional signs that create, maintain, or end contact between the addresser and addressee; and (e) signs with poetic function, using a code to express messages that may not otherwise be conveyed.

In addition, Spolsky (2009) states that these various types of signs carry both descriptive and symbolic meanings and how these meanings are perceived depends heavily on the type of sign. Government signs such as street signs, for instance, are often the focus of controversy as only one language is addressed. This situation can be reflected in most multilingual countries and has become one of the key concerns in many LL studies (Cenoz & Gorter, 2010). Indirectly, this also raises the issue of authorship, which is considered an important categorisation in LL study. Ben-Rafael et al. (2006, p.10) highlighted the importance of distinguishing between top-down and bottom-up signs since this distinction reveal proper order in the analysis of LL. 'Top-down', 'official signs', 'government' or 'LL from above' are different terms used in LL to describe signs issued by national and public bureaucracies, public institutions, public sites, public announcements, and street names. In other words, official signs such as signs of government agencies, street names, traffic signs, and signs of government buildings are created by the government to represent its position and action, projecting their official status to represent both the central government's language policy and the country's ideology (Lu, Li, & Xu, 2020). In contrast, 'bottom-up', 'private' and 'LL

from below' are terms used to refer to items issued by individual social actors, store owners, and companies, such as shop names, company signs and private announcements (Ben-Rafael et al., 2006). The use of language in private signs, which represents the personal interest and demands of sign makers, is relatively unrestricted and diversified (Shang & Zhao, 2014).

The distinction between 'top-down' and 'bottom-up' signs indicates that the LL is a heterogeneous region (Kallen, 2009). Not only does it reflect the social hierarchy between official and non-official sign producers, but it also represents linguistic hierarchies in the LL. The display of languages on 'top-down' and 'bottom-up' signs appear to indicate the importance of some languages in the public and private spheres (Blackwood & Tufi, 2012). Although a distinction is commonly made between top-down and bottom-up signs, both play their part in painting the overall image of LL (Szabo-Gillinger et al., 2012). This is because LL is known as a "gestalt" which can be defined as "items appearing together" or seen as a whole (Ben-Rafael, 2009, p.43). In the context of tourist spaces specifically, this hierarchy is especially salient, as government signs mandate specific language requirements while private commercial signs may deviate from policy for commercial or branding reasons — a tension that is central to the policy-practice analysis in RQ3.

The categorisation of signs by language combination represents a third and equally important analytical dimension. Various scholars have examined how languages are combined on multilingual signs and what these combinations reveal about language hierarchy, translation practices, and communicative intent. Cenoz and Gorter (2010) developed a language feature framework that classifies signs as either monolingual or multilingual, with the latter further categorized into bilingual, trilingual, or quadrilingual displays. In Tokyo, Backhaus (2007, p.74-75) found different language combinations across fourteen languages, demonstrating the richness of multilingual sign production in a globalised urban environment. Another prominent study done by Ben-Rafael et al. (2006, p.17-18), which the study classified LL items according to the languages used and multilingual patterns appearing on signs, noting that the arrangement of languages on multilingual signs is never arbitrary but reflects the relative status and communicative priority of each language. As Ben-Rafael et al. (2006, p.10) observe, the placement of languages on signs constitutes a form of "symbolic construction of the public space", where language hierarchies are rendered visible and

legitimised through spatial arrangement. Adapting these categorisations by Edelman (2010), Huebner (2009), and Cenoz and Gorter (2010) helps in analysing the composition of multilingual texts available in the tourist sites examined.

The taxonomies reviewed in this section collectively reveal that sign classification in LL research is not merely a technical exercise in data organisation but a theoretically loaded act of interpretation. Every decision about how to categorise a sign, whether it is by authorship, by function, or by language combination, embeds assumptions about what matters most in a given research context and what the resulting data is intended to reveal. For the present study, the integration of Edelman's (2010) authorship categories, Huebner's (2009) functional sign typology, and Cenoz and Gorter's (2010) language combination framework is driven by the specific analytical requirements of RQ1, which examines the types of LL found across the three tourist sites. By applying three complementary classification systems simultaneously, the study is able to produce a multi-dimensional picture of the LL that captures not only what languages appear on signs, but who produced those signs, what functional purposes they serve, and how languages are arranged relative to each other. This level of analytical granularity is essential for the subsequent examination of policy-practice consistency in RQ3 and for understanding the sociolinguistic dynamics of tourist signage in Perak's multilingual tourism environment.

2.6.4 Code Preference and Preference Model

Addressing questions such as who authors signs, what languages appear on them, how they are arranged, and for whom they are intended brings the discussion to the concept of code preference — a framework that examines the motivations and conditions underlying language choice in public signage. In multilingual sign environments, signs rarely present all languages equally. Typically, the most preferred code is placed in the dominant position on the sign. It is practically impossible for all languages on a multilingual sign to occupy the same position or arrangement. As Scollon and Scollon (2003) note, the noticeably larger letters will be read as dominant, while those in smaller fonts or positioned lower on the sign will be perceived as subordinate regardless of which language they represent.

The preference model, on the other hand, not only accounts for language use patterns on signs but also gives an insight into the motivations behind applying certain languages in linguistic landscapes. Since the trends of the languages on signs and the texts' communicative functions are the primary concerns of this study, Spolsky's and Cooper's (1991) preference model is the most relevant framework to be adapted. Spolsky and Cooper (1991) stated that by focusing on the issue of language choice, the following language aspects need to be considered: what language or languages, the order, appearance, and how the choice of language can be clarified and explained. The preference model was established by formulating three criteria for the choice of language in public signage:

I. Sign-writer's skill condition: Write signs in a language you know.

II. Presumed reader condition: Prefer to write signs in the language or languages that intended readers are assumed to read.

III. Symbolic value condition: Prefer to write signs in your own language or in a language with which you wish to be identified.

The sign-writer 's skill condition illustrates the need for a sign writer to have a certain degree of literacy in the language to be used. In other words, the first condition indicates that the sign writers need to 'write in a language that he or she knows'. This is because the writers need to be fluent in the languages in which they are supposed to write when they come up with a signage. Writing in a language that is foreign to them may likely affect the message that they are trying to convey. Therefore, this aspect is one of the variables that is considered to be crucial and also observed in this study.

The second condition, the 'presumed reader condition' deals with the communicative goal of the signs, where sign writers would write in the language or languages that target readers are expected to read and understand. It is important to identify the purpose of using certain language(s) when creating a sign. According to Backhaus (2005, p.36) "...if a sign is placed up for commercial purposes, including in cases where the capacity condition of the sign writer is only partially met, the sign writer may choose a language understood by potential customers". In relation to the tourist industry, the sign writer may produce a sign in languages they expect tourists to

understand, which would benefit the individual or company by conveying the right message to the expected target readers.

Different from the two conditions mentioned, the 'symbolic value' condition concerns with writing signs in a language with which the writer wishes to be identified. This illustrates that language choices on signs assert elements such as ownership, cultural identity, and the symbolic associations that sign makers wish to project. For instance, based on the study conducted by Anuarudin et al. (2013), the use of BM is more dominant on signs from the government sector compared to private agencies in public space. This is due to the fact that BM has been accorded prominence, and this projects a way of symbolising the status of BM as the national language of the country. Since language choice varies from sign to sign, examining which conditions are most apparent in the context of tourism is central to addressing RQ2 of the present study.

The three conditions proposed by Spolsky and Cooper (1991) provide a foundational analytical lens for understanding why sign creators choose particular languages in multilingual tourist spaces. However, the adaptation of this framework to the Malaysian tourist context reveals an important distinction that goes beyond what the preference model alone can account for: the difference between a language appearing on a sign because policy requires it and a language appearing because the sign creator genuinely prefers it. In the context of this study, BM may appear prominently on signs either as a 'required code' mandated by local council, or as a 'preferred code' chosen voluntarily by sign creators reflecting their genuine preference and community identity. This distinction, which builds upon and extends Spolsky and Cooper's (1991) symbolic value condition, represents an original analytical contribution of the present study.

2.6.5 Types of Multilingual Writing

The arrangement of codes on multilingual signs provides significant information on power relations between languages: i) languages on signs might or might not have official status; ii) minority languages could struggle to be noticed by their presence in the LL (Backhaus, 2007; Ben-Rafael et al., 2006). It is important to note how languages are presented on signs, which can exist in a variety of forms such as one language can be more apparent than another, language can be written in larger letters or positioned vertically, horizontally, or centrally, and translations of different content may appear in

multiple languages. To contextualise this study, it is important to take into account existing work that focuses on the settings of the place and the methodologies adopted. One of the most widely cited frameworks is Reh's (2004) typology of multilingual writing. The framework is of importance to many studies since it examines composition types in multilingual texts. Reh (2004) identifies four major types of language combination and information presentation: duplicating, fragmentary, overlapping, and complementary multilingual writing, which are commonly found in a multilingual context like Malaysia.

The first type of multilingual writing is 'duplicating'. 'Duplication of multilingual writing' refers to linguistic patterns in which a similar amount of information is presented in more than one language and the texts carry the same meaning. It is presumed that one language is directly translated into another, reflecting the need for fair representation of the given languages. This practice mirrors what Reh (2004, p.8) termed 'societal multilingualism', referring to "the existence of more than one language in the target group". In the context of tourism, multilingual sign writers ought to reach specific target audience by applying the duplication method. Having signs that display translation or duplicating multilingual writing would benefits the tourist to receive the information in their preferred language. Reh (2004) indicates that 'duplicating multilingual writing' can serve as an identity maker and represents equality between all linguistic and cultural groups.

The next type of multilingual writing categorised by Reh (2004) is 'fragmentary multilingual writing'. According to Reh (2004), 'fragmentary' refers to the full text that presented in only one language, with selected parts of the same text translated into another language(s). The signs do not display any direct translations of all the wordings; instead, only a few words are translated into another language. One should therefore be fluent in the dominant language of the text for it to be fully comprehended by the readers. This type of multilingual presentation may indicate that whichever language appears 'in fragment', those selective sections are interpreted as having less status power over the entire public domain.

The third type, 'overlapping multilingual writing', is believed to have similar properties to 'fragmentary multilingualism', given that one additional language is translated in part of its creation while other portions are interpreted in a single language. It is rather similar to fragmentary multilingual writing, considering that only partial

language translations are offered in both cases. The last type of multilingual text classified by Reh (2004) is known as 'complementary multilingual writing'. This refers to text in which different parts of the information are provided in different languages, where the signs display more than one language that complement one another rather than translating one another. There is no presence of translation of any text. For the text to be fully comprehended, it is mandatory for the reader to be competent and fluent in all languages displayed.

Koskinen (2012) applied Reh's (2004) framework in a study on translation and how it is produced in the LL of the suburb of Hervanta in Tampere, Finland. According to Koskinen (2012), Reh's categories were useful, however, they only referred to what had been translated. Koskinen further elaborated that one needs to know how the elements of translation are constructed in order to fully comprehend the roles and functions of the translated signage. Koskinen therefore adapted Edelman's (2010) translation-oriented sub-categorisation, which further divides duplicating into "word-for-word translation" and "free translation", renames fragmentary writing as "partial translation", and uses a "no translation" category to illustrate the absence of translation in complementary multilingual writing. These sub-categories provide greater precision in classifying translation types within multilingual signs. Haynes (2012) examined the LL of Cardiff University and found Reh's framework useful as it provides reference points for categorically analysing signs. However, the difficulty in distinguishing between the second and third types, given that both offer only partial translations, was identified as a limitation of Reh's original typology.

Similar findings were also triggered in Anuarudin's (2017) study where she mentioned that her study too made no direct distinction between Reh's (2004) 'fragmentary' and 'overlapping' types of multilingualism. Based on her study of policy, practice and perceptions of LL in Klang Valley, Malaysia, she adapted both Backhaus's (2005) and Reh's (2004) frameworks and expanded new categories of 'text composition' for multilingual signs, known as 'mutual translation', 'partial translation' and 'harmonised translation'.

Table 2. 1
Comparison of Types of Composition, Typology of Multilingual Writing and Types of Text Composition for Multilingual Signs adapted from Anuarudin (2017)

Composition Type (Backhaus, 2005)	Types of Text Composition (Anuarudin, 2017)	Typology of Multilingual Writing (Reh, 2004)
Homophonic	**Mutual translation**	**Duplicating multilingualism**
- Signs with mutual translation or transliteration completely available	- Signs that display two or more languages constituting a complete translation of each other	- Signs with the exact same text presented in more than one language
Mixed	**Partial translation**	**Fragmentary/ Overlapping multilingualism**
- Signs with mutual translation or transliteration partially available	-Signs with only some information provided in more than one language	- only selected parts of the text are translated (fragmentary) -only parts of the information are repeated in at least one other language (overlapping)
Polyphonic	**Harmonised composition**	**Complementary multilingualism**
- Mutual translation or transliteration not available (two or more languages) on the signs	- Signs containing texts in at least two languages that complement each other.	-"Texts in which different parts of the overall information are rendered in a different language" (p.14).
Monophonic		
- Mutual translation and transliteration not available (one language)		

As presented in Table 2.1, 'text composition' created by Anuarudin (2017) resembles Reh's (2004) and Backhaus's (2005) frameworks which reflect the types of text for multilingual signs. The first category of types of text composition is 'mutual translation', which has a similar definition to Backhaus's (2005) 'homophonic' and Reh's (2004) 'duplicating'. 'Mutual translation' looks at signs that display complete translation of the texts to other language(s). Reh (2004, p.8) explains that this type of sign recognises the reality of having more than one language among the target readers or community. This somehow project similar situation for this study as Malaysia consists of different races and cultural background. Furthermore, according to Anuarudin (2017), observing the presence of 'mutual translation' types of text

composition on multilingual signs would provide some insights into how public space acknowledges cultural diversity in Malaysia.

The next text composition is 'partial translation', where monophonic category seems relevant to be employed in this study. This term is deemed appropriate as it considers signs that display texts with only some parts of the information translated to another language(s). This echoes with Backhaus' (2004) framework which he termed it as 'mixed' composition' since he also believes that there is no clear explanation on the distinction between Reh's (2004) 'fragmentary' and 'overlapping' types of multilingualism. The final category is 'harmonised composition' ('polyphonic' in Backhaus, 2005 and 'complementary' in Reh, 2004), where it examines the presence of signs that contain at least two languages where the information is complementary without presenting mutual or partial translation.

Following Reh's approach, Anuarudin (2017) also did not include the harmonised composition category when analysing multilingual text composition, as it is presumed to be redundant with the monolingual sign category already addressed in her first research question. As this study similarly finds no clear basis for distinguishing between the fragmentary and overlapping types in the Malaysian tourist context, it is appropriate to adopt Anuarudin's (2017) approach in analysing the different text compositions present in the LL of the selected tourist sites. Since Malaysia consists of diverse races and cultural backgrounds, observing the presence of 'mutual translation' and 'partial translation' types of text composition on multilingual signs provides insights into how public space acknowledges cultural diversity. The frameworks reviewed in this section collectively provide structured reference points for the systematic interpretation and categorisation of multilingual text composition across the three tourist sites. Therefore, adapting these frameworks aids in analysing the composition of multilingual texts displayed within the selected tourist sites, which is discussed further in Chapter 4.

The progression from Reh's (2004) original typology through Koskinen's (2012) and Edelman's (2010) translation-oriented refinements to Anuarudin's (2017) contextualised text composition framework demonstrates a clear trajectory of methodological maturation in the LL field. Frameworks are not static but are continuously refined and adapted to meet the specific analytical demands of new research contexts. For the present study, this trajectory justifies the selection of

Anuarudin's (2017) framework over Reh's original typology on two grounds. From a methodological standpoint, Anuarudin's categories are more precise, as the mutual, partial, and harmonised composition distinction resolves the ambiguity between the fragmentary and overlapping types that previous scholars identified as a limitation. From a contextual standpoint, the framework was developed and validated within a Malaysian LL study, making it directly applicable to the present research without requiring cross-cultural adaptation. By adopting Anuarudin's (2017) types of text composition alongside the other frameworks reviewed in this chapter, the present study is positioned to produce findings that are both analytically rigorous and meaningful with existing Malaysian LL studies.

2.7 Linguistic Landscape and Perception

Perception towards one's language or language varieties of other communities has played a significant role in shaping the LL within public spaces. In the context of LL research, perception refers to the ways in which individuals interpret, respond to, and attribute meaning to the languages and signs they encounter in public spaces (Landry & Bourhis, 1997; Shohamy & Gorter, 2009). As Scollon and Scollon (2003) observe, the meanings conveyed by signs are never fixed or neutral but are actively constructed through the interpretive frameworks that readers bring to their encounters with public language. From philosophical, psychological, and cognitive perspectives, perception is understood as the process by which individuals organise and interpret sensory information from their environment (Qiong, 2017; Yeung & Leung, 2007). It is widely acknowledged that perception varies considerably from objective reality, as no two individuals interpret the world in exactly the same way (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; Jandt, 2004; Shiraev & Levy, 2004).

Mayo and Jarvis (1981) conceptualise perception as a 'stimulus filtering mechanism', in which sensory input is observed, interpreted, integrated with prior experiences, and stored to influence future actions. Perception is also shaped by personal factors such as interest, experience, motivation, aspirations, behaviours, age, occupation, gender, and nationality, and it is subject to change over time through new experiences and social interactions (Giles, 1982; Mayo & Jarvis, 1981). The public's perception of signs in multilingual context is therefore shaped by a complex interplay

of linguistic background, cultural identity, prior experience, and contextual expectations. These are factors that are especially significant in tourist spaces, where visitors encounter languages in environments designed to project particular cultural and commercial messages.

The concept of perception has been widely applied in tourism research, focusing on aspects such as the growth of tourism (Yacob, Radam, & Samdin, 2011; Yankholmes & Akyeampong, 2010), destination image (Qeed et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2009), and the environmental implications of tourism and air travel (Baysan, 2001; Becken, 2007; Lertwanttowit & Anuwi, 2009). Such research typically focuses on macro-level entities such as countries (Fuchs & Reichel, 2006; Jensen & Komeliussen, 2002; Wichasin, 2011), historic cities (Yan, 2019), heritage sites (Yankholmes & Akyeampong, 2010), coastal areas (Sharma & Dyer, 2009), islands (Agrusa et al., 2008), and marine parks (Yacob et al., 2011). In contrast, small-scale objects in public spaces such as shop signs, street names, graffiti, flyers, and banners have received far less scholarly attention, despite their potential to shape visitor's experiences (Jaworski & Thurlow, 2010). Public spaces often contain a diversity of linguistic elements that influence how tourists navigate and interpret their surroundings.

In recent years, studies associating LL with people's perceptions have grown substantially, focusing on how signs are read, interpreted, and valued by both locals and tourists. For instance, Hoffman (2017) conducted a study on pharmaceuticals and tourist spaces in Cozumel's LL. Since Cozumel Island is one of the well-known tourist destinations in Mexico, the researcher explored tourists' perceptions and experiences of reading pharmaceutical signs in the survey site. Based on the LL findings, medicinal indications not only serve as functional purposes but also act as souvenirs and reminders of visitors' health needs, which also influence their experience in visiting the island. Similarly, Yan and Lee (2014) examined tourist perceptions of Macau's street signs. The results indicated that most travellers to Macau believed that street names and signs played a vital role in allowing them to discover the sites and appreciate the history and culture. It was concluded that tourists' perceptions of street names were influenced by personal factors including native language, travel mode, and frequency of travelling. The findings also highlighted the absence of English in many signs as a barrier for some visitors.

Recent research has broadened the thematic and geographical scope of LL perception studies. Wang and Gao (2025) examined the role of English in the LL of Luang Prabang, Laos, showing that merchants viewed English primarily as a commercial tool for engaging tourists, while visitors perceived it as both a cultural heritage bearer and a practical means of navigation. Safitri (2025) analysed commercial signs in Beachwalk Kuta, Bali, and found that multilingual displays influenced tourist movement patterns, brand perceptions, and purchasing behaviour. Robinson-Jones (2024) studied linguistic landscapes in intangible cultural heritage museums, showing how multilingual displays shaped visitor expectations of authenticity and cultural immersion. In Saudi Arabia, Alfurayh (2025) explored the intersection of language, identity, and tourism under Vision 2030, demonstrating that multilingual signs in heritage and leisure spaces served both to project national identity and to meet international tourist needs. Collectively, these recent studies show increasing methodological refinement, incorporating ethnographic observation, perceptual surveys, and multimodal analysis.

In Malaysia, several studies have examined the LL with a specific focus on how readers perceive and interpret multilingual signs. Woo and Riget (2020) investigated visitors' perceptions of 368 'top-down' signs in the two terminals of Kuala Lumpur International. The findings revealed that BM was the most prominent language, followed by English, while Chinese, Arabic and Japanese were displayed with equal prominence. Respondents generally supported bilingual BM–English signs, though some local participants called for the inclusion of Tamil. Gill and Teo (2019) analysed multilingual signs in urban areas and explored how such signs influenced public perceptions of linguistic prestige and inclusivity, noting that language choice and arrangement shaped how passers-by evaluated the social value of different languages displayed. Rajendra and Kaur (2020) studied multilingual cityscapes to understand how perceptions of linguistic representation were tied to ethnic relations, revealing that signs displayed could challenge perceptions of inclusivity among diverse linguistic communities.

These Malaysian LL studies collectively demonstrate that language perception in public spaces is an active rather passive process. Readers evaluate the prominence given to one language over another, the accessibility of the information displayed, and the degree to which the LL reflects or excludes their own linguistic background, all of

which shape how individuals experience and respond to the public spaces they inhabit. For a study conducted in tourist spaces, where visitors bring diverse linguistic backgrounds and varying expectations of what a multilingual LL should look like, capturing these evaluative responses is analytically essential. The present study addresses this directly through its survey questionnaire component, which gathered perceptions from 714 respondents across the three tourist sites in Perak, an approach that, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, has not been applied in any prior systematic multi-site study of tourist LL in Perak.

Despite the growing body of LL research, important gaps remain. Many LL studies seldom address the issue of agency or authorship, such as who create the signs and the reasons for creation (Spolsky, 2009). This is due to the fact that most investigations only cover surface-level analysis of collected materials, without exploring the motivations or purposes behind sign creation. Although observed data is interpreted, verification of the results with human participants does not often take place, creating a methodological gap in the LL field. Aiestaran, Cenoz, and Gorter (2010) also note that only a limited number of studies have highlighted perceptions in relation to LL, which are profoundly influenced by the ideologies and identities surrounding the languages displayed.

Furthermore, LL tourism studies continue to prioritise large-scale signage, as opposed to small-scale items such as graffiti, street names, flyers, and banners which precisely the types of features that may have a strong impact on visitor's experience. It has been acknowledged that small scale objects could attract tourists' attention and become embedded in their destination experience (Jaworski & Thurlow, 2010). Given the multilingual and multicultural nature of public spaces, understanding how LL is perceived remains crucial, as linguistic competence, cultural orientation, and personal background influence interpretation (Cenoz & Gorter, 2008; Landry & Bourhis, 1997; Lefebvre, 1991).

In response to these gaps, this study includes the perceptions of both sign creators and readers (the public) to provide a more comprehensive understanding of how LL is constructed, experienced, and interpreted in a multilingual tourism context. LL allows people to observe how languages are displayed and used differently across various regions and sites. Since individuals come from diverse backgrounds, their prior knowledge and attitudes towards certain language(s) may influence the way they

perceive LL and experience the public space (Landry & Bourhis, 1997; Lefebvre, 1991). The added value that exists in LL can influence not only the perceptions and attitudes that people have towards language(s), but also language use within society (Cenoz & Gorter, 2008). Overall, the LL of tourist signs, which has not been sufficiently researched in Perak, therefore represents an important domain from which to include the perceptions of sign creators as well as Malaysian citizens and other tourists regarding the LL of the selected tourist areas.

2.8 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter reviewed the literature relevant to the study, beginning with an overview of the linguistic landscape (LL) concept and its theoretical development from Landry and Bourhis (1997) to Backhaus (2007). It then addressed research on LL in tourism contexts, highlighting how spatial signs intersect with regulatory policies, commercial goals, and visitor expectations. The chapter explored language policy compliance and LL actors, focusing on government authorities, private sign creators, and the visiting public. It also presented the six analytical frameworks adapted in this study, introducing the conceptual distinction between Bahasa Melayu as a 'required code' and a 'preferred code'. Finally, this chapter discussed public's perception studies, establishing the theoretical foundation for examining visitor responses to multilingual signage. The next chapter contains a detailed description of the methodology.

CHAPTER 3
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the research methodologies and analytical approaches that was employed in this study, the instruments used, followed by detailed descriptions of the process of data collection and data analysis which are discussed according to the research questions.

3.2 Research Design

Research design refers to the approach or paradigm that underpins the research (Blaxter et al., 2006). It is also known as a research strategy, which is a plan to answer a set of questions (McCombes, 2019). Abutabenjeh and Jaradat (2018) added that research design is a blueprint to guide the research process by laying out how a study will move from the research purpose or questions to the outcomes. Generally, it covers three primary stages which include the methods and procedures to collect, analyse, and interpret data. In other words, it is a framework that describes how the researcher will investigate the central problem of the research.

Mixed method is the most common paradigm used for conducting research and broadly similar across disciplines. Blaxter et al. (2006, p.59) believe that it is the most holistic method to be used. According to Creswell (2016), by adopting mixed-methods approach, data can be triangulated, and researchers are able to collect and analyse data in a more comprehensive way. Moreover, mixture of methods enables both distinctive research types to be complemented in a way that statistical quantitative data can be cited to provide greater evidence for discussion of the findings, and detailed explanations can be laid out to clarify the meaning of any figures collected (Dornyei, 2007).

Mixed-methods approach can be explored in various ways and aid to provide greater understanding of the phenomena as well as validity of the findings (Ary et al., 2010). Similar to other LL studies conducted in relation to tourism (Bruyel-Olmedo & Juan-Garau, 2015; Hamdiyah & Arts, 2019; Johnson, 2019; Thongtong, 2016), a mixed-methods design was applied as an approach to most of the research. This is because LL of tourism is a complex context of research, hence, to include only rating scale or just an interview would provide weak, inadequate picture of the data. Bearing from these explanations, the application of the mixed-methods approach was the most relevant for this study. Specifically, a convergent parallel design was adopted, in which qualitative and quantitative data were collected simultaneously and independently during the same phase of the study, and subsequently merged and integrated at the interpretation stage (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). Quantitative data collected were presented in numerical statistics about the signs as a collective form of data, whereas the qualitative data focuses on addressing these statistics and deliberating over the underlying causes for why the signs appear as they do, and to also support with the elaboration of language policy, as well as perception of the public in relation to the LL of the tourism spots. This design was selected because the research questions collectively require both the quantitative documentation of sign distributions and linguistic features, and the qualitative interpretation of policy documents, sign creators' motivations, and public's perceptions, dimensions that are complementary rather than sequential.

3.3 Research Phase

This study was divided into three phases: (1) the groundwork. (2) pilot study, and (3) actual study. The summary of research phases is shown in Figure 3.1 below:

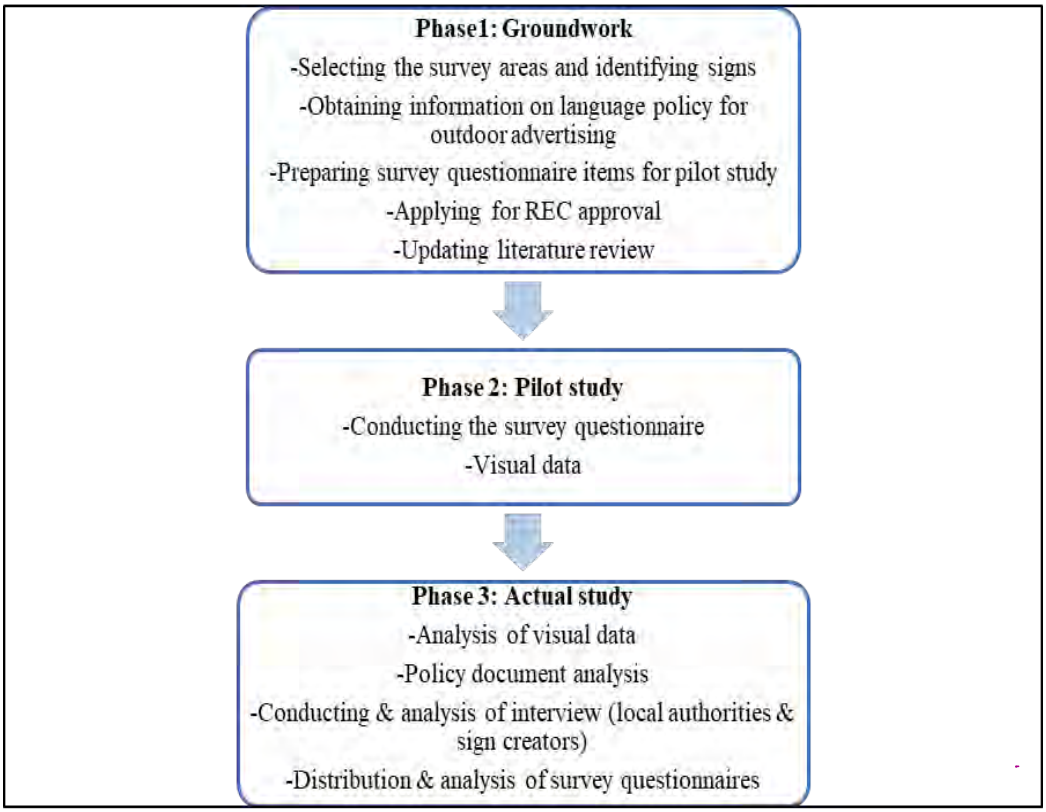

Figure 3.1 Summary of Research Phases

3.3.1 Phase 1: Groundwork

The first phase involves identifying the survey areas. With an area of over 21,000 sq. km. stretching all the way to the Thai border from the north of Selangor, Perak is recognized as one of the largest states in Peninsular Malaysia. Despite its eminent geography, the state is also known for its pristine natural landscape that has been well managed for their conservative values as well as various famous heritage sites and interesting places to visit. The high number of visitors who visit Perak over the years has led the researcher to investigate the LL of the state's tourist sites.

Despite the large tourist flow, another reason for the tourist sites to be chosen as the surveyed sites is due to the prominent role of tourism industry as the backbone of Malaysia's economy (Statista, 2020). In this case, the appearance of signs within the industry plays a significant role, particularly in responding to the needs of the tourists despite offering visual consumption for tourists. Therefore, it is crucial for signs to be investigated further to see the current representation of the tourist LL as well as its impact on the society.

The survey sites comprised the top three most visited places in Perak based on information obtained from the domestic tourism survey conducted by the Department of Statistics Malaysia (2019). The year 2019 was selected as it represented the most recent and valid data available, given that tourism activity in Malaysia was severely disrupted during 2020 and 2021 due to the enforcement of the Movement Control Order (MCO) in response to the COVID-19 pandemic. As domestic and international tourism was effectively suspended during this period, no comparable visitor statistics were available for 2020 and 2021. Furthermore, the three selected sites (Pulau Pangkor, Lost World of Tambun, and Teluk Batik) are well-established destinations that maintained prominence in Perak's tourism landscape prior to the pandemic. Their continued relevance during the gradual resumption of domestic tourism from 2022 onwards is reflected in their sustained recognition by Tourism Perak as key visitor destinations.

During this phase, the signs within the study's scope were identified in line with Backhaus's (2007) definition of signage: '…any piece of written text within a spatially definable frame' (p.66). Therefore, signs in this study encompassed any written text publicly displayed, including road signs, site names, streets, buildings, places, institutions, advertising billboards, and commercial shop signs. All signs fitting these criteria found in the selected tourist sites were taken as data samples.

Official government policy documents for each related tourist site were then retrieved from the relevant city council's website, which provides the rules and regulations pertaining to the implementation of signage in public spaces. This is to examine whether the LL in the selected tourist sites is consistent with the regulations stipulated in the language policy documents.

Another aspect explored in this study is the public's perceptions. To investigate tourists' perceptions of the different signage in the selected survey areas, a questionnaire adapted from Anuarudin (2017), Wang (2015), and Woo and Riget (2020) was utilized. To ensure questionnaire reliability, a pilot study involving a minimum of 88 respondents was conducted. However, before conducting the pilot study, the researcher applied for approval from the Research Ethics Committee (REC) of Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM). Ethical approval was granted with approval reference number REC/03/2022 (PG/MR/48), and data collection commenced only after this approval was obtained, in accordance with the institution's research governance requirements.

Informed consent was obtained from all participants prior to data collection. For the survey questionnaire, participation was entirely voluntary. Respondents were informed through an introductory statement at the beginning of the Google Form and on printed copies of the questionnaire that their participation was voluntary and that their responses would be kept confidential and used solely for research purposes. No personally identifiable information was collected in the questionnaire.

For all face-to-face semi-structured interviews with enforcement officers and sign creators, verbal consent was obtained at the beginning of each session and confirmed through audio recording of the participant's agreement to participate. Participants were also informed on the purpose of the study, their right to withdraw at any time without consequence, and the manner in which their responses would be used. All shared information was anonymised in the transcripts as well as in the thesis using the participant coding label described in Table 3.2.

3.3.2 Phase 2: Pilot study

3.3.2.1 Pilot Study on Survey Questionnaire

To address the fourth research question (RQ4) regarding the public's perception of the LL in selected tourist sites in Perak, an initial pilot study was conducted to assess the reliability of the survey questionnaire before its distribution. A survey questionnaire adapted from Anuarudin (2017), Wang (2015), and Woo and Riget (2020) was distributed to the public, including tourists, and subsequently analysed. The questionnaire aimed to reveal readers' interpretations of language preferences and actual language representations in the LL of the selected tourist sites. The items consist of three sections. The first section (Section A) included 10 items focused on subject descriptors and aimed to elicit demographic information from the respondents. Participants were asked to provide information about their gender, age, nationality, level of education, occupation, residential location, experiences visiting the tourist sites, and knowledge of a specific language(s).

The second part (Section B) consisted of 12 survey items, with 10 closed-ended questions and 2 open-ended questions, focusing on the respondents' perceptions regarding public signs available in the selected survey areas in Perak. The questionnaire items contain mostly closed-ended questions that include questions in relation to the linguistic content of the signs, which give more focus on language preferences as well as language representation. Question 1 to 5 reflect the general perceptions towards the multilingual signs of the tourist sites; question 6-10 represent respondents' reading preference when reading the signs, which they were required to answer based on three pictures of signs included in the questionnaire; question 11 represents question related to respondents' awareness on language policy; and lastly, question 12 which aimed to gather respondents' insights on how frequently different languages are used on public signs. The final section (Section C) consisted of 3 items that represent questions specifically related to language and visual preferences. This section contains mixed questions which require the respondents to tick their responses on the given choices. Apart from that, there were also open-ended questions presented in the survey items.

The questionnaire was presented in both Malay and English using Google Form as the main survey platform. It was distributed randomly to a minimum of 88 respondents (public) via WhatsApp as well as in person at the Lost World of Tambun in March 2022, using a survey link or a QR code prepared by the researcher. These digital tools were prepared by the researcher to ensure the survey was convenient and accessible to the public. For individuals who encountered difficulties accessing the survey, the researcher also provided printed copies of the questionnaire by hand to ensure inclusive participation. The minimum of 88 respondents is considered to be sufficient for a pilot study, as Saunders et al. (2016) opined the sample size for pilot study should be between 40-100 respondents.

Following the pilot study results, minor adjustments were made to the questionnaire items. These included paraphrasing questions and restructuring the answer choices in the Google Form to address respondents' confusion, which was identified through their feedback and informal comments during the pilot distribution. On top of that, the number of open-ended questions were also reduced and replaced with closed questions. Changes in the questionnaire items were made to ensure that the items appear relevant, reasonable, unambiguous, and clear (Oluwatayo, 2012).

The most significant revisions were made to Section C of the questionnaire, which focuses on respondents' language and visual preferences. In the original pilot version, all three items in Section C were presented as fully open-ended questions, asking respondents to describe their language preferences, their preferred visual display format, and their reasons for those preferences. However, pilot feedback revealed that fully open-ended questions in this section caused respondents difficulty, as many were unsure how to articulate their preferences without a reference given, resulting in vague or incomplete responses. Based on this feedback, all three items in Section C were revised from fully open-ended questions to a mixed format.

In the revised version, respondents were first required to indicate their preference by selecting from a set of provided closed-ended options and were then required to elaborate on their choice through a brief open-ended follow-up response. For instance, the original open-ended item asking respondents to describe their preferred language on public signs in tourist areas was revised to a closed-ended item in which respondents were asked to select their preferred language combination from given options such as BM only, English only, BM and English, or multilingual. Following these close-ended items, respondents were required to provide reasons for their selection within a subsequent open-ended space. This mandatory mixed format helps retain the qualitative depth of the responses while ensuring that all respondents engaged critically with the questions, thereby improving both the reliability and completeness of the collected data.

3.3.2.2 Pilot Study of Visual Data Samples

A pilot study involving 120 visual data from survey sites was carried out to test the categories or features identified in this research. The data sample was gathered between March 2022 and June 2022, after the easing of COVID-19 restrictions in Malaysia, which had previously hindered the collection of data due to strict movement controls and public health measures. Since LL study is based on taking photographs from the relevant source (Hult, 2009), thus images of different types of signs from different sites were photographed by the researcher using high resolution phone camera. This include taking photo of words, phrases and languages that were displayed on different types of signs including shop signs, banner, signage, poster, and billboard. The

survey items were then classified into different categories based on approaches adapted from Edelman's (2010), Huebner's (2009), Scollon and Scollon's (2003), Cenoz and Gorter's (2010), Anuarudin (2017), Reh's (2004), and Spolsky and Cooper's (1991). The categories include:

i. Government vs private
ii. Monolingual vs multilingual
iii. Type of sign (e.g., directional, informational, regulatory, advertising)
iv. Code preference (e.g., order of appearance and font size)
v. Composition of texts.

These categories were analysed further to ensure that there would be no changes to the categories identified. To confirm the validity of the visual categories applied in this study, validation was sought from two independent LL researchers. Each validator was provided with a sample of 30 signs drawn randomly from the pilot dataset, along with the operational definitions for each coding category and the frequency count table for verification. They were asked to independently categorise the sampled signs using the provided framework categories and definitions. The findings were then compared with the researcher's own categorisations. The validation process was conducted following the peer review protocol recommended by Nowell et al. (2017) to ensure credibility and consistency in qualitative categorisation. The two validators confirmed that the categories were conceptually categorised, consistent with established LL research conventions, and sufficiently distinct from one another to enable reliable classification. Based on the outcomes of the pilot study, no changes were made to the identified categories, and the data collected from the pilot study were incorporated into the actual study.

3.3.3 Phase 3: Actual study

A detailed analysis of the collected data was carried out in this phase. It involved both qualitative (see section 3.4.1) and quantitative (see section 3.4.2) data collection methods, which covered visual data from different tourist sites, language policy

documents and their distribution, interviews from local authorities and sign creators, as well as the public's perceptions pertaining to the LLs displayed. The data was then utilised for qualitative and quantitative analysis (see section 3.5).

3.4 Data Collection Method

As mentioned in the previous section, this study utilised a mixed-methods approach of data collection – qualitative and quantitative approaches as shown in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1
Data Collection Methods

Qualitative	Quantitative
Visual data: Taking photographs & analysing the text of the signage in the selected survey areas	***Survey questionnaires:*** Distributing it to the public
Semi-structured interviews: Conducting interviews with the relevant local authorities and sign creators	
Document**:** compiling language policy documents from the relevant city councils' website	

The data collection techniques used were adapted from the methodological approaches implemented by Wang (2015), as stated in Chapter 1. Based on his study of signs in Japan, he posed several questions to triangulate the aspects that can be manifested in this study; (i) what contributes to its formation? (ii) how languages are used and regulated in certain place? and (iii) how do people respond to the multilingual environment? These aspects were employed as a guide for this research to address the research objectives (ROs) and research questions (RQs). Both quantitative and qualitative approaches adapted in this study are discussed in the following sections in order to answer the research questions of the study.

3.4.1 Qualitative Approach

Qualitatively, this study employed three types of data collection techniques: (i) visual analysis of photographs of signs from the linguistic landscapes, (ii) conducting semi-structured interviews, and (iii) analysing policy documents. These methods aimed to provide a comprehensive understanding of the display and manifestation of various

linguistic elements in the survey sites and to observe the consistency between stipulated language policies and actual practices. Each data collection method is discussed in the subsequent sections.

3.4.1.1 Visual Analysis

LL analysis relies heavily on photography and visual analysis which provides detailed descriptions of one's social spaces (Akindele, 2011). The presence or absence of certain languages may intricate meaningful data that projects the symbolic messages about the importance, power, significance, and relevance of specific languages or the irrelevance of others (Shohamy 2006, p.115). Hence, the data collection for this study consists of photographic database, primarily pictures of signs in the selected tourist sites in Perak. Pictures of signs available were taken to record the status quo of the LL of the investigated areas.

The initial phase of data collection was carried out between March and June of 2022, following the easing of COVID-19 restrictions in Malaysia. The imposition of strict movement control (MCO) measures by the government had previously limited the ability to gather such data. Recognising the importance of current and accurate data, the researcher revisited the sites from January to March of 2023 for further data collection. This was done to determine if there had been any changes to the linguistic landscape following the post-pandemic period and to ensure that the data remained relevant and current. Random images of different types of signs were photographed by the researcher while walking along the tourist sites using a high-resolution phone camera. Across the three tourist sites, a total of 1,039 signs were photographed and collected across both phases of data collection: 616 signs at Pulau Pangkor, 326 signs at Lost World of Tambun, and 97 signs at Teluk Batik. This total constitutes the primary visual dataset that is analysed and discussed in Chapter 4. Some steps were taken into consideration during the data collection process which include:

1. The researcher visited the three areas which are Pulau Pangkor, Lost World of Tambun and Teluk Batik.
2. The researcher took photos of words, phrases and languages that were displayed on different types of signs including shop signs, road signs,

name of sites, advertisement, building signs, banner, signage, poster, and billboard.

3. All collected images were then analysed and categorised.

As for visual analysis, this study adapts approaches by Edelman (2010), Huebner (2009), Cenoz and Gorter (2010), Reh (2004), Scollon and Scollon (2003) and Spolsky and Cooper (1991) in terms of collecting and categorising the signs, which the categories were piloted at the initial stage of the study. This study also employs Backhaus' (2005) suggestions in considering several methodological issues when collecting visual data, which are; (i) determining the survey area(s), (ii) the survey items, and (iii) their linguistic properties. These items are explained in the following sections.

Survey area

The areas studied are highlighted in the maps presented below (refer to Figures 3.2, 3.3, 3.4 and 3.5). It is important that the covered areas are clearly elaborated and presented for statistical considerations. The sites were selected based on the top three most visited places in Perak retrieved from the domestic tourism survey (2019) conducted by the Department of Statistics Malaysia. Due to the famous heritage footage, it is interesting to see how these LLs are presented. This is also to examine whether different sites trigger different uses of the language(s) in the landscape.



Figure 3.2 Map of Perak State

Perak was chosen as the focus area for this study, as it emerged as one of the most popular tourist destinations in 2019 with 10.1 million domestic and international

tourist arrivals, outperforming many other states (Department of Statistic Malaysia, 2019). The state of Perak is the second largest in Peninsular Malaysia, spanning an area of approximately 21,000 square kilometres. Due to its historic popular tin mining industry, the name 'Perak', meaning silver, was established. Apart from its historical attractions, Perak is recognised for its pristine natural landscape, which has been well managed for its conservative values, alongside various heritage sites and prominent tourist destinations. In June 2016, Ipoh, the capital city of Perak, was ranked as the 6th best place to visit in Asia by Lonely Planet. The entire state of Perak was also recognised by Lonely Planet as one of the top 10 best regions in the World to visit in 2017. The three tourist sites selected for this study, namely Pulau Pangkor, Lost World of Tambun, and Teluk Batik, were identified as the top three most visited sites in Perak based on data obtained from the 2019 domestic tourism survey conducted by the Department of Statistics Malaysia. Maps as well as detailed background descriptions of these three survey sites are presented in figures 3.3, 3.4, and 3.5.



Figure 3.3 Map of Pulau Pangkor

Pangkor Island is recognised as a popular tourist destination located within the Manjung District in Perak, Malaysia. It has an estimated population of 25,000 people. The island is situated 3.5 kilometres from the coast of Peninsular Malaysia and encompasses a total land area of approximately 26.25 square kilometres. The name Pangkor derives from the Thai phrase 'Pang Koh', which translates to 'beautiful island', a designation reflected in its notable natural scenery. Visitors frequently describe the

destination as an island paradise, characterized by its clear waters, white sand beaches, and diverse marine ecosystems. Furthermore, Pangkor Island is geographically sheltered from severe monsoon impacts. This favourable maritime climate, which maintains moderate temperatures throughout the year, has contributed significantly to its status as one of the premier holiday locations in Malaysia. For the purpose of this study, photographic corpus of signage data was collected systematically along the coastline of the island.

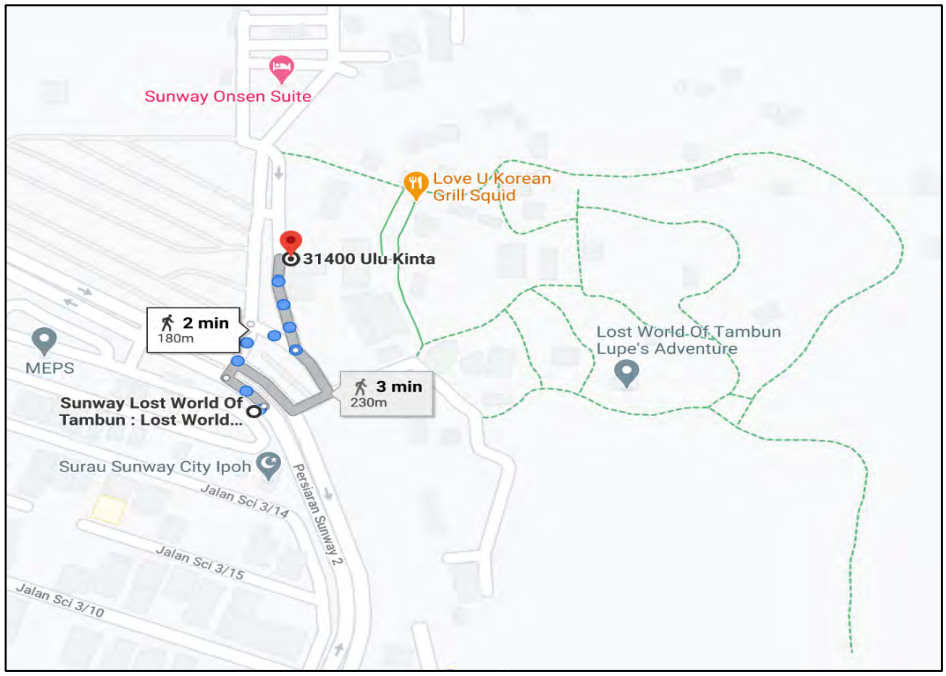

Figure 3.4 Map of Lost World of Tambun

Lost World of Tambun is known for its action-packed, wholesome destination for family adventures. The theme park was built on formerly mined out land and has now become a prominent tourist attraction. It features various natural formations, including million-year-old limestone hills and a geyser that propels hot water into the air up to a height of 40 feet (12 meters). The Lost World of Tambun provides a secure environment for visitors of all ages, while offering a welcoming learning atmosphere through a variety of educational features located throughout the park. It is viewed as a tribute to both the technological and environmental heritage of Ipoh (National Geographic, 2015). The theme park has become a primary hub for tourists seeking to experience the history and local delicacies of Malaysia, positioning the site as one of

Perak's premier tourist destinations. All textual form of signage available within the theme park were photographed and compiled as data samples.

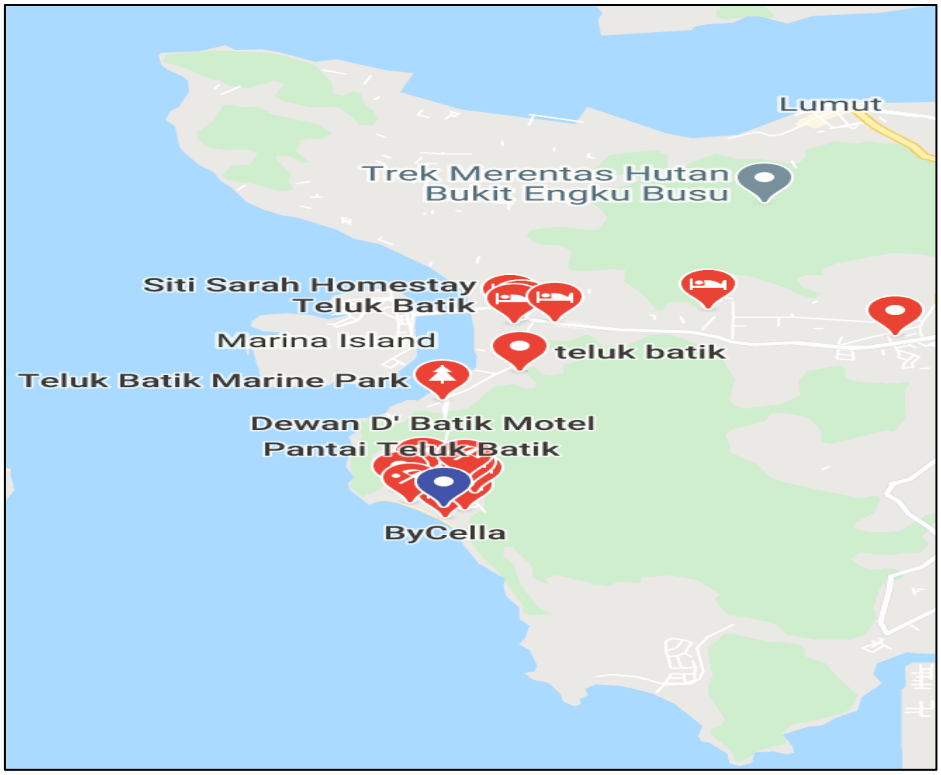

Figure 3.5 Map of Teluk Batik

Teluk Batik is a very well-known beach in Perak. It is in the sub-district of Lumut, approximately 10 minutes from Bandar Seri Manjung. Spanning a surface area of 62 acres, the beach is nestled in a calm, jungle-topped bay flanked by rising headlands at either end. The tranquil waters of the bay are renowned for hosting numerous public events, including water sports and swimming activities. The coastal strip is bordered by coconut palms and native vegetation that provide ample shade, contributing to the distinct maritime environment of the site. The spacious hard landscaping of Teluk Batik features a paved plaza area adorned with mini minarets, a specialized seashell museum, namely Muzium Siput, and dozens of commercial stalls selling souvenir items, beach attire, and refreshments. For the purpose of data triangulation in this study, textual signs along the coastline of Teluk Batik beach were photographed and compiled as data samples.

Survey items

The present study applied the definition provided by Backhaus (2007) on what exactly count as linguistic objects in public space. The objects include "…any piece of written text within a spatially definable frame" (p. 66) such as road signs, names of sites, streets, buildings, places, institutions, advertising billboards, as well as commercial shop signs. Selecting bigger range of sign type will help to capture the diversity of the selected LL, enhance the validity as well as contributing positively to the investigation (Ben Said, 2010). For this study, only stationary and visible signs, as mentioned in Backhaus (2007), found in the selected tourist sites were taken as data samples. For instance, road signs, store-front signs, flyers on pillars, advertisement on walls, banners or posters on buildings and billboards. Non-stationary signs or text that appears on moving objects (e.g., books, newspapers, magazines, t-shirts, pamphlets, leaflets, banknotes, parcels, and vehicles) were excluded from the recorded items, reflecting Alomoush's (2015) belief that "the spatial presence of moving objects cannot be accurately specified" (p.95). All stationary signs in the survey areas were photographed, similar to Backhaus (2006) and Zhao (2020) approach, where each sign was counted as one item, regardless of its size. Since this study is focusing on the consistencies of actual practices with the stipulated policies pertaining to language, only outdoor signs with written texts were included, as according to Backhaus (2005), signs without text would exacerbate methodological problems. Also, stained signs as well as unclear signs were excluded.

Types of Linguistic Landscape and Linguistic Features

To categorise the visual data collected, this research employed approaches used by several researchers, integrating multiple frameworks for data analysis. The frameworks include:

i. **Edelman (2010)** distinguish sign type into several categories:
   a) **Survey area** or the studied area of signs.
   b) **Authorship** is based on who created the sign (e.g., government or private). Governmental signs or known as public signs are created

by public authorities, such as the government, municipalities, and public agencies like the national health department. Private signs, on the other hand, are created by individuals or non-governmental associations and organisations.

ii. **Huebner (2009) and Ben-Rafael et al. (2006)** proposed different category of sign type:
   a) **Type of sign** is based on the function and use of signs (e.g., directional, informational, identification, regulatory, advertising etc).

iii. **Cenoz and Gorter (2010)** classify the language features into various categories:
   a) **Combinations of languages** is in terms of monolingual, bilingual or multilingual.
   b) **Authorship** is based on who created the sign (e.g., government or private). This is similar to Edelman's (2010) approach of sign type.

iv. **Scollon and Scollon's (2003) code preference** – This approach focuses on order of arrangement and font size used on multilingual signs in the survey areas.

v. **Spolsky and Cooper's (1991) preference model** – The three conditions in this framework which are *sign-writer's skill condition* (write signs in a language you know), *presumed-reader condition* (write signs in the language(s) that intended readers are assumed to read), and *symbolic value* (write signs in your own language or in a language with which you wish to be identified) are adapted to discuss the motivation behind the preference of using certain languages on signs.

vi. **Anuarudin's (2017) types of text composition developed from Reh's (2004) typology of multilingual writing** – It is used to examine the composition of texts (mutual and partial translation) on multilingual signs in the survey areas.

These frameworks were utilised to analyse the languages depicted in the visual data collected. The different frameworks were integrated in a complementary manner, with each addressing a distinct analytical layer of the visual data. Since certain frameworks share overlapping categories, particularly regarding authorship and sign

type classification, this study adopted a clear priority scheme to ensure consistency in categorisation. Specifically, Edelman's (2010) framework was applied as the primary framework for authorship classification, distinguishing all signs into government and private categories across the three tourist sites. Although Cenoz and Gorter (2010) also include authorship as a sub-category under language features, their framework was utilised solely to classify language combinations as either monolingual or multilingual. The authorship category within their framework was subsumed under Edelman's (2010) more comprehensive categorisation to avoid double-counting.

Similarly, while both Edelman (2010) and Huebner (2009) address sign types, they are applied at different levels of analysis. Edelman's (2010) categorisation focuses on the broader distinction between survey area and authorship, whereas Huebner's (2009) typology provides a highly specified classification of sign types into directional, informational, regulatory, advertising, identification, and building name categories. In this study, Huebner's (2009) typology was therefore prioritised for sign type classification by function, while Edelman's (2010) framework was retained exclusively for authorship classification. Ben-Rafael et al.'s (2006) framework complemented Huebner's (2009) approach in confirming the functional categories applied.

To confirm the validity of the categorisation process and enhance consistency in coding, the researcher sought validation from two independent LL researchers, as described in Section 3.3.2.2. These experts confirmed that the classification of signs was consistent with established LL frameworks and that no ambiguities remained in the coding process. Following the experts' validation, a final review was conducted to incorporate their suggestions, ensuring conceptual alignment with established LL research conventions. This validation procedure strengthened the content validity of the study by confirming that the categories accurately reflected theoretical constructs from LL literature, and it enhanced the credibility and analytical rigour by verifying consistency and objectivity in the frequency counts. Subsequently, these categories were cross-referenced with the policy documents and interview data to ascertain consistency. Further elaboration on the categories derived from the visual data is presented in the data analysis section (see Section 3.5).

3.4.1.2 Document Analysis

This study adapted Trumper-Hecht's (2010) framework, which observed the construction of the LL and how stipulated language policies affect the actual practices of LL in a specific area. The same approach was also applied in analysing the data. The policy documents were triangulated with the visual data, respondents' perceptions from the survey questionnaires as well as the interview (enforcement officers and sign creators) in order to seek the relationship between the policy and the actual practices. It is important to investigate the policy documents as it will greatly influence the signs displayed in certain areas (Cenoz & Gorter, 2006). Hence, for this study, official policy and documents pertaining to language policy and advertisement laws such as the Federal Constitution 1982, The National Language Policy, and also The Advertisement by-law of Municipal Council of Perak (2000) were retrieved from two different sources which are websites as well as interview sessions with enforcement officers from the relevant institutional bodies using an audio recorder.

a) Electronically from the websites;

i. Statistic data for most visited tourist sites in Perak retrieved from https://www.perak.gov.my/images/menu_utama/ms/kerajaan_negeri/data_UPEN/LaporanSosioekonomiNegeriPerak/LSNP2019.pdf

ii. Advertisement Visual Regulation Advertisement By-law retrieved from http://www.mbi.gov.my/en/mbi/resources/guidelines

b) Interview session with enforcement officers;

i. Ipoh City Council (MBI)

ii. Manjung Municipal Council (MPM)

3.4.1.3 Semi-Structured Interviews

Conducting interviews as part of the data collection is crucial for LL studies in order to gain an in-depth view of the LL survey areas. This method has started to gain interest by many scholars around the world. For instance, Hult and Kelly-Holmes, (2019) conducted interviews with tailor shop owners in Singapore to investigate the visual semiosis of the tailor shop and the owner's insights into its development. Another

study done by (Lu et al., 2020), where they examined the presentation of LL of Hongcun village in China in terms of selection of language in linguistic signs. Interview was conducted to study the intention of sign makers, mainly including government regulators and shop operators who were closely relevant to the making process of linguistic signs. The outline of the interview focused on how signs were made, why their signs were made in this way and their intention of making the signs.

In the Malaysian context, Manan et al. (2015) conducted interviews with shop owners to explore their rationale behind selecting specific languages for signage. Anuarudin (2017) similarly employed interviews in her research, engaging representatives from advertising agencies, local city councils, and Dewan Bahasa & Pustaka (DBP) to assess the consistencies between stipulated language policies for outdoor advertising and actual practice in Klang Valley. Following suit with these studies, this research also utilised semi-structured interviews to gain a comprehensive understanding of the consistency between language policies and their actual practice in the surveyed areas.

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with three relevant enforcement officers from the selected local city councils (e.g., MBI and MPM) to gain information on the regulations of the policies. This type of interview offers flexibility as it does not follow a rigid method, and respondents tend to talk more personally about their experience (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). The interview session, which consist of open-ended questions adapted from Anuarudin (2017) were conducted in BM as it is the official language to be used when dealing with government officials. Semi-structured interviews were also conducted with 13 signage creators from the survey sites to gain in-depth information pertaining to the creation of signage, especially on the reasons of creation as well as their awareness on the stipulated policy documents. The questions were adapted from Ryan (2011). Total of 13 informants (sign creators) are sufficient sample size for a qualitative data since saturation of themes can be reached by the twelfth respondents (Guest, Bruce & Johnson, 2006).

The informants were chosen based on volunteer sampling. According to Morse (1991), volunteer sampling involves selecting potential respondents who are willing and qualified to participate in the study. Interview data from signage creators helped to support the interpretation in analysing the consistencies between language policy and actual practice. In the context of this research, signage creators refer to shop owners,

representatives from hotels or marketing officers in the chosen sites. The target participants for this study were informants aged 20 and above. These participants are considered to have completed the transition from late adolescence into the early stages of adulthood, a period characterised by greater cognitive stability, independent decision-making, and accumulated life experience (Arnett, 2000). While Arnett's (2000) framework of emerging adulthood begins at 18, research on neurocognitive development indicates that cognitive stability and executive function typically reach adult-level performance by late adolescence between the ages of 18 and 20 (Casey et al., 2008), suggesting that individuals aged 20 and above are more likely to demonstrate consistent, reflective responses in survey and interview contexts. This is consistent with the criterion sampling approach described by Creswell (2016), in which participants are selected based on predetermined criteria that ensure they can provide relevant, informed, and experientially grounded responses to the research questions.

Research ethics such as the respondents' consent to be interviewed, and issues of sensitivity, confidentiality and identity were taken into account when conducting the interviews. All interviews, which lasted an average of 20-30 minutes each, were conducted face-to-face and recorded using an audio recorder. Interviews with enforcement officers and sign creators were transcribed and later translated from Bahasa Melayu (BM) to English for analysis purposes. To facilitate the presentation and discussion of interview excerpts in Chapter 4, all interviewees were assigned participant codes as shown in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2
Reference for the Interviewee

	Interviewees	Reference
Enforcement officer		
i)	Ipoh City Council (MBI)- 2 officers	EO1 and EO2
ii)	Manjung Municipal Council (MPM)- 1 officer	EO3
Sign creators		
i)	Pulau Pangkor – 7 signs creators	PP1, PP2, PP3, PP4, PP5, PP6, PP7
ii)	Lost World of Tambun- 3 sign creators	LW1, LW2, LW3
iii)	Teluk Batik- 3 sign creators	TB1, TB2, TB3

Enforcement officers from the Ipoh City Council (MBI) are coded as EO1 and EO2, while the enforcement officer from the Manjung Municipal Council (MPM) is coded as EO3. Sign creators from Pulau Pangkor are coded as PP1 to PP7, sign creators from Lost World of Tambun as LW1 to LW3, and sign creators from Teluk Batik as TB1 to TB3. These codes are used consistently throughout Chapter 4 whenever interview excerpts are presented as supporting evidence, allowing readers to identify the site context and role of each participant without compromising their anonymity.

3.4.2 Quantitative Approach

Like any other LL studies, most studies in LL tend to focus on the quantitative presence of language on signs in a given space (e.g., Ben-Rafael et al., 2006; Huebner, 2006). By analysing quantitative data, it enables researchers to draw implications on societal issues related to the niches of language choices, including ethnic or social conflicts and solidarity, official or unofficial signage power structures, and hidden agenda reflected by the differences between language policies and actual practice (Backhaus, 2006; Shohamy, 2006). Although the benefits of quantitative analysis in LL have been questioned by many researchers, especially on the features that sometimes claimed to be inaccurately characterised such as simply counting signs and languages (Blommaert, 2013; Pennycook & Otsuji, 2014), it helps to add depth to the qualitative data. Blackwood (2015) also highlighted the importance of implementing quantitative dimension towards the LL study where he added that "…the quantitative approach is a prerequisite for LL research which seeks to describe and analyse a given space. …quantitative and qualitative approaches feed into one another, and it is ideal modus of operandi" (p.39). Therefore, by taking into account the multimodal of the LL of the tourist sites, it is appropriate to combine the statistical data from both quantitative analysis and qualitative descriptions, which would further help to produce in-depth analysis and reliable findings.

Prior to this, a questionnaire consisting of 25 items was administered to the public. This questionnaire, adapted from Anuarudin (2017), Wang (2015), and Woo and Riget (2020), plays a crucial role in interpreting the public's perception regarding language policy-making and the actual representation of the tourist LL. Understanding the perception of sign readers is considered essential in comprehending the entire LL,

as signs are constructed to transfer information, requiring a receiver to complete the communication cycle (Lim, Rosman & Goh, 2012, cited in Woo & Riget, 2020). In other words, readers' perceptions were pivotal in assessing the utility of the signs.

To ensure the validity and reliability of the questionnaire items, a pilot study was conducted at the initial stage of this study, as mentioned in the earlier part before distributing it for actual data collection. The questionnaire items consist of three sections. The first section (Section A) includes 10 items involving subject descriptors and aimed at eliciting demographic information from the respondents. The respondents were asked to provide information about their gender, age, nationality, level of education, occupation, residential location, experiences visiting the tourist sites and knowledge on specific language(s).

The second part (Section B) consisted of 12 survey items, with 10 closed-ended questions and 2 open-ended questions, focusing on the respondents' perceptions regarding public signs available in the selected survey areas in Perak. The questionnaire items contained mostly closed-ended questions that include questions in relation to the linguistic content of the signs, which give more focus on language preferences as well as language representation. Question 1 to 5 reflect the general perceptions towards the multilingual signs of the tourist sites; question 6-10 represent respondents' reading preference when reading the signs, which they were required to answer based on three pictures of signs included in the questionnaire; question 11 represents question related to respondents' awareness on language policy; and lastly, question 12 which aimed to gather respondents' insights on how frequently different languages are used on public signs. The final section (Section C) consisted of 3 items that represent questions specifically related to language and visual preferences. Some of the sections contained mixed questions which require the respondents to tick their responses on the given choices. Apart from that, there were also open-ended questions presented in the survey items.

The questionnaire, available in both Malay and English on Google Form, was distributed to diverse group of respondents, including local and foreign tourists, expatriates, and residents near the selected tourist sites. Distribution involved sharing a Google Form link or a QR code created by the researcher. For those who encountered difficulties accessing the form online, physical copies of the questionnaire were provided directly on-site. Respondents were also reached via online distribution through

WhatsApp and email using Google form link. These varied distribution methods were employed to ensure broad and accessible participation.

Convenience sampling was utilised in this study. As Baker et al. (2013) describe, convenience sampling involves selecting participants based on the ease of access for the researchers, rather than following a formal sample design. Consequently, around 714 respondents were surveyed in the period of seven months (December 2022 – June 2023), an average size determined based on sample sizes used in prior LL studies, ranging from 400 to 1000 respondents: Anuarudin (2017) surveyed 887 respondents, while Yan and Lee (2014) and Bruyel-Olmedo and Juan-Garau (2015) surveyed 400 respondents each. This present study also specifically targeted respondents aged 20 and above, as this demographic is often considered to have completed the transition from late adolescence into the early stages of adulthood, a period characterised by greater cognitive stability, independent decision-making, and accumulated life experience (Arnett, 2000). Research on neurocognitive development further indicates that cognitive stability typically reaches adult-level performance by late adolescence between the ages of 18 and 20 (Casey et al., 2008). This suggests that individuals aged 20 and above are more likely to provide consistent and reflective responses in survey contexts. Furthermore, the threshold of 20 and above was adopted as a practical measure to ensure that all respondents were independent adult. This is consistent with the criterion sampling approach described by Creswell (2016), in which participants are selected based on predetermined criteria that ensure they can provide relevant, informed, and experientially grounded responses to the research questions. The findings from the questionnaire are discussed further in Chapter Four.

3.5 Data Analysis and Research Framework

The data analysis of this study is largely based on textual analysis. In order to analyse and discuss the data, the research questions were divided into four main categories with subcategories for each. Several frameworks applied (refer to Table 3.3) in this study are integrated in the explanation of each research question (RQ).

Table 3.3
Integration of Frameworks under each Research Question

Research Question	Subcategories & Framework
1. What are the types of linguistic landscape found in the selected tourist sites in Perak?	• **Sign type- Edelman (2010)** - Authorship (e.g., government or private), • **Sign categories- Huebner (2009) and Ben-Rafael et al. (2006)** - Function of sign (e.g., directional, informational, regulatory, advertising, identification and building names). • **Language features- Cenoz & Gorter (2010)** Combinations of languages (monolingual or multilingual)
2. What are the linguistic features of the linguistic landscape displayed in the selected tourist sites in Perak?	• **Code preferences - (Scollon & Scollon, 2003)** - Order of arrangement and font size • **Preference model (Spolsky & Cooper, 1991)** - sign-writer's skill condition - presumed-reader condition - symbolic value • **Composition of Multilingual texts** **Typology of Multilingual Writing (Reh, 2004).** - Duplicating multilingualism (signs with the exact same text presented in more than one language) - Fragmentary / Overlapping (only selected parts of the text are translated) - Complementary (texts in which different parts of the overall information are rendered in a different language) • **Types of Text Composition (Anuarudin, 2017)** - Mutual translation - Partial translation - Harmonised
3. How is the relationship between actual practice and stipulated language policies pertaining to the linguistic landscape of the selected tourist sites in Perak?	• Policy documents and semi-structured interviews • Actual practice of the LL in the selected survey areas (visual signs)
4. What is the public's perception of the linguistic landscape displayed in the selected tourist sites in Perak?	• **Survey questionnaire adapted from Anuarudin (2017), Wang (2015), and Woo and Riget (2020).** - Public's perceptions and attitudes

The analysis of the LL was framed by the three main categories adapted from Trumper-Hecht's (2010) framework known as 'dimensions of space'. The first level of analysis was based on 'spatial space', also known as the physical dimension, encompassing the elements corresponding to RQ1 and RQ2. In other words, it is to see how the LL is constructed, including the language(s) displayed and how it is presented to the readers, the number of languages on sign, the order of languages on multilingual signs as well as the translation of text (fully or partially). The second level of analysis was the 'conceived space' or known as political dimension, which reflects the views and ideologies held by different policy makers whose policies shape the LL. This is specifically to see how language(s) use in signs is regulated or planned in the selected survey areas which help to answer RQ3. The third and final level of analysis focused on the 'lived space' or experiential dimension which used to address RQ4 by examining how sign readers (the tourists or public) view the multilingual space of the tourist sites.

A detailed analysis was carried out which involves both qualitative and quantitative methods. Quantitative data analysis was presented in numerical statistics related to the signs data as well as perceptions of the public in relation to the LL of the tourist sites, whereas qualitative analysis focused on addressing these statistics and deliberating over the underlying causes of how and why signs appear as they do. The qualitative analysis was also supported with the elaboration of language policy and interview data from the local enforcement officers and sign creators. This is further explained in the next section.

Spatial Space (Physical Dimension)

Based on Trumper-Hecht's framework, the analysis begins with the spatial space, or known as physical dimension of the LL. This dimension concerns how language is visually constructed in public spaces, including the languages displayed, prominence and order of languages, types of signs, and translation of text. The physical dimension therefore guides the analysis of the LL, specifically on the types and features addressed in RQ1 and RQ2.

3.5.1 RQ1: Types of Linguistic Landscape Found in the Selected Tourist Sites in Perak

Analysing the type of signs is a crucial criterion highlighted in the analysis part of this study. Swales (1990) emphasises that the identification of genres could bring important source of insight that help to produce interpretation. Following Edelman's (2010), Huebner's (2009), Ben-Rafael et al.'s (2006), and Cenoz and Gorter's (2010) approaches, this study aimed to classify and describe the various types of signs found in the surveyed sites.

In addressing the first research question, images of signs captured from diverse tourist sites were compared and categorised based on frameworks proposed by Edelman (2010), Huebner (2009), Ben-Rafael et al. (2006), and Cenoz and Gorter (2010). These categories encompassed language combinations (monolingual or multilingual), authorship (private or government), and sign types (e.g., directional, informational, regulatory, advertising, identification, and building names). As previously stated, all categories underwent piloting during the initial phase of the study to ensure the validity and reliability of the items. Frequency counts were then applied to each sign based on the identified categories, and the data were meticulously recorded in Microsoft Excel spreadsheets, mirroring the approach taken by Blackwood and Tufi (2012).

To confirm the validity of the categorisation process and enhance consistency in coding, the researcher sought validation from two independent LL researchers to review the coding framework and the subset of the data. These experts were provided with a sample of the categorised images, the operational definitions for each coding categories, and the frequency count table for verification. They examined whether the classification of signs (e.g., authorship, language type, and sign function) was consistent with established LL frameworks and whether any ambiguities existed in the coding process. Following the experts' validation, a final review was conducted to incorporate their suggestions, ensuring conceptual alignment with established LL research conventions. This validation procedure strengthened the content validity of the study by confirming that the categories accurately reflected theoretical constructs from LL literature, and it enhanced the credibility and analytical rigour by verifying consistency and objectivity in the frequency counts.

3.5.1.1 Authorship (Government and Private Signs)

The first category that was analysed in identifying the type of LL is the authorship. For this study, pictures of signs found in the survey sites were captured and later categorised into government and private signs. Both government and private LL can be revealed through examining the prominent language(s) in the LL. It is believed that the distinction is crucial in the analysis of LL (Ben-Rafael, 2006, p.10). This distinction will also contribute to a greater understanding of the language policy applied in the selected area (Yavari, 2012). According to Szabo-Gillinger et al. (2012, p.265) and Ben-Rafael (2009, p.43), even though the distinction is made in the analysis, both government and private signs do play their part in creating the overall image of the LL as one whole. Therefore, it is important for this study to make a distinction between the two-sign maker as the language(s) used may vary on different types of signs within the selected sites. This also leads towards investigating the consistency between the actual practice from both types of signs with the language policy.

3.5.1.2 Monolingual and Multilingual Signs

Another important category that was investigated is the combination of languages that exist in the survey sites. Identifying the languages used in public signs whether it exist in a bilingual or multilingual space is significant in LL study (Spolsky, 2009). Ben-Rafael (2009, p.40) also mentioned that items in LL studies need to be analysed accordingly as in the usage of language, the significant features, structures, and semantic aspects. Identifying the various languages in the survey area would reflect "the relative power and status of the different languages in a specific sociolinguistic context" (Cenoz & Gorter 2006, p. 67). This study adapted similar approach by Cenoz and Gorter (2010) in projecting the distribution between monolingual and multilingual signs for each type of sign (government and private) in order for other features (code preferences, text arrangement, etc) to be analysed easily and precisely. The distribution of data was done quantitatively by stating the frequency. This frequency counts show how many times one language is present on all data by counting the occurrence on the related signs from each selected tourist site. A higher percentage of a language's

appearance on signs indicates that it is the most often used, and hence most valuable, language in a particular region. Following Anuarudin's (2017) approach, this study does not distinguish between bilingual and multilingual as its focus is only on languages used in a more general perspective (used by public) rather than specific use of languages as in individual level.

3.5.1.3 Type of Sign

Categorising signs based on its function and use is an important feature in LL, which frequently coded as a key variable in previous research (Zhao, 2020). The researcher categorised the signs into seven distinct groups following Huebner's (2009) and Ben-Rafael et al.'s (2006) approach: 1) the first category refers to informative signs, which provide specific details about services and functions such as shop signs, directory maps, schedule, and information about tourist areas; 2) directional signs is considered as an important type of sign, especially for tourist in giving them direction to the preferred sites. These signs provide clear information about routes, destinations, and points of interest. It often features simple, universally recognizable symbols and arrows, along with the text in a language or multiple languages; 3) regulatory signs relate to requirements in order to regulate access, behaviours as well as other rules within a public space. It helps maintain order and public safety, which often reflect broader legal and policy frameworks. For instance, traffic regulations, parking rules, health regulatory signs, and instructions for public conduct; 4) warning and prohibition signs are signs designed to alert individuals to potential hazards or to prohibit specific actions such as hazard warnings, no-smoking signs, restricted area notices; 5) advertisement signs, on the other hand, reflect signs that promote products, services, or events, often created by commercial entities. Billboards, shop signs, and even posters are part of the examples for this category; 6) identification signs serve to label and distinguish specific areas, attractions, or themed zones within a site; and 7) building names are specific signs that denote the names of buildings or structures, indicating their use or ownership.

These categories represent the main types of signs typically found in tourist areas. It is important to distinguish between different types of signs as these would help to contribute to the overall visual and functional character of the selected tourist sites, hence shaping the dynamism in the LL.

3.5.2 RQ2: Linguistic Features of the Linguistic Landscape Displayed in the Selected Tourist Sites in Perak

To address the second research question (RQ2) regarding the coding of linguistic features in the displayed signs, it was analysed based on three different text-analysis frameworks; (i) code preference (order of arrangement and font size) by Scollon and Scollon (2003); (ii) preference model (sign-writer's skill condition, presumed-reader condition, symbolic value) by Spolsky and Cooper (1991) and (iii) types of text composition (mutual and partial translation) by Anuarudin (2017). As Backhaus (2007) mentions, it is important to note that the distinction between LL data coding (i.e., languages used on signs, order of appearance of signs, amount of information, etc.) and LL data categorisation (e.g., private, government, etc.) help to organise data consistently and create further interpretation on the investigated area. Based on the linguistic features mentioned (language arrangement, font size, language condition, presence of translation in the texts), it is crucial that these variables are investigated in order to observe the consistencies between the stipulated language policy and actual practice. Statistical inputs were provided by utilizing Microsoft Excel spreadsheets to indicate the frequency count on government and private signs, followed by a descriptive analysis of the language features. The data analysis employed in this section is similar to most LL research conducted (Backhaus, 2007; Ben-Rafael et al., 2006; Blackwood, 2011; Blackwood & Tufi, 2012; Lu et al., 2020; Pavlenko, 2010; Reh, 2004). Researcher then attained validation from two LL researchers for face validity.

3.5.2.1 Code Preference (Language Placement and Font Size)

The textual analysis of the first linguistic features was adapted from Scollon and Scollon's (2003) framework which focuses on the arrangement (order of appearance) as well as the font size of the multilingual texts. Anuarudin (2017) states that it is important to investigate how these texts are created and arranged to signify language preferences and also to see their relationship with the stipulated language policy. The arrangement of the preferred code used on a sign may vary. It could be placed exclusively on top, on the left, or in the centre of a sign. According to Scollon and Scollon (2003), in the case of horizontal texts the preferred code will be positioned on top, and in the case of vertical texts, the preferred code is positioned to the right of the text. There are instances according to Scollon and Scollon (2003), where font size and placement do not have an equal inclination. In this case, font size takes precedence over text order or placement. As the LL in the selected tourist areas of this study comprised of signs with more than one language, it is essential to observe the code preference of the signs in order to examine how languages are presented in the public space and their relationship with the stipulated language policy. The arrangement as well as the size were then be interpreted further in accordance with the preference model by Spolsky and Cooper (1991).

3.5.2.2 Preference Model (Language Condition)

Another framework employed to address RQ2 is the 'preference model' by Spolsky and Cooper (1991), which used to examine code preferences within the selected tourist sites. This model delineates three main aspects which are; (1) a sign-writer's condition, which means to write signs in a language you know; (2) 'presumed reader's condition is where the sign writer chooses to use a language that is assumed to be understood by the target market; and (3) the 'symbolic value' condition where it reflects the sign creator's intention to use their own language or a language that the sign creator wants to be known by or identify with (Backhaus, 2007). These conditions aid in determining the fundamental reasons for different code preferences within the surveyed sites. The findings were interpreted in relation to the stipulated language policy.

3.5.2.3 Types of Text Composition

For the composition of multilingual texts, this study adapted Anuarudin's (2017) types of text composition, which were developed from Reh's (2004) typology of multilingual writing. It is aimed at facilitating the analysis of the visual samples collected, which cover the types of text arrangements in different tourist areas. As listed in Table 3.4 below, the first category of types of text composition is 'duplicating', which refers to the 'mutual translation' that displays having more than one language. This may resemble the condition of Malaysia's citizens, who are from different cultural backgrounds. Consequently, this study witnessed a wide array of languages in text displays due to the multicultural background, offering valuable insights into how public spaces were acknowledged by cultural diversity in Malaysia. The next category, known as 'partial translation', is used to see whether some part of the text is translated to another language or languages employed in the text displayed. The last category under Anuarudin's framework is known as 'harmonised composition' ('complementary' in Reh, 2004), which is used to examine the presence of signs that contain at least two languages where the information is complementary, not indicating mutual or partial translation.

Table 3.4
Comparison of Typology of Multilingual Writing and Types of Text Composition for Multilingual Signs adapted from Anuarudin (2017)

Types of Text Composition (Anuarudin, 2017)	Typology of Multilingual Writing (Reh, 2004)
Mutual translation	**Duplicating multilingualism**
-Signs that display two or more languages constituting a complete translation of each other	- Signs with the exact same text presented in more than one language
Partial translation	**Fragmentary/ Overlapping multilingualism**
-Signs with only some information provided in more than one language	-Only selected parts of the text are translated (fragmentary) -Only parts of the information are repeated in at least one other language (overlapping)
Harmonised composition	**Complementary multilingualism**
-Signs containing texts in at least two languages that complement each other.	"Texts in which different parts of the overall information are rendered in a different language" (p.14).

Conceived Space (Political Dimension)

Based on Trumper-Hecht's Linguistic Landscape (LL) framework, the second level of analysis focuses on conceived space, also referred as political dimension, which reflects the ideologies of policymakers and local authorities in shaping the LL. This dimension examines the relationship between stipulated language policies and actual signage practices in the selected tourist sites in Perak, particularly in terms of how language use on public signage is regulated, thereby addressing RQ3.

3.5.3 RQ3: The Consistency between Actual Practice and Stipulated Language Policies Pertaining to the Linguistic Landscape of Selected Tourist Sites in Perak

The third research question (RQ3) focuses on the relation and consistency between the stipulated language policies as well as the actual practice. Document analysis, thematic analysis and descriptive analysis were applied to answer RQ3. Three sets of data samples were analysed and discussed qualitatively: policy documents, semi-structured interview data (enforcement officers and sign creators), and visual analysis of the captured LLs. Each set of data sample was triangulated and discussed to represent the results of the LL for each tourist site.

Policy Documents

The policy documents were retrieved from the relevant websites, as well as the enforcement officers from the local authorities. In order to evaluate the policy, specifically for outdoor advertisement, document analysis was applied. Information about local language policy such as The Federal Constitution1982, The National Language Policy and Advertisement by-law of Municipal Council of Perak (2000) was studied thoroughly. The policy documents were referred to determine the language policies and regulations imposed for signage in the selected tourist areas. The documents were triangulated with the visual data as well as the interview data from both enforcement officers and shop owners in order to observe the consistency between the policy and the actual practices. Although LL is said to be an instrument through which

language policy is reflected (Dal Negro, 2009), stating a policy does not necessarily mean that it is being practiced since there are also other situations where the use of languages is in contrast with the policies (Shohamy, 2006). Due to this, consistency between policy and actual practice is indeed an important variable that should be explored further. This helps to enhance the understanding of the LL of the selected tourist sites as well as reflect on the achievement and the implementation of the national language policy.

Semi-structured Interviews

Official documents and descriptive analysis of visual data do not always provide a complete representation of the linguistic situation (Yavari, 2012). Therefore, additional data samples were analysed, including semi-structured interviews. This study employed a thematic analysis approach to analyse the qualitative data gathered from interviews conducted with two main groups. The first group included representatives from local city councils. These interviews, based on open-ended questions, aimed to gather information regarding regulations and actual practices of advertising signs in the selected tourism-centric areas. The second group involved sign creators in the selected tourist sites, which aimed to understand the reasons behind sign creation and their awareness on the regulations of public signage. According to Merriam and Tisdell (2015), semi-structured interviews are known as a valuable tool for gaining insights into participants' perspectives and ideas, while also addressing core concerns in qualitative research.

For this study, all interview data were collected and analysed in accordance with the ethical approval granted by the Research Ethics Committee (REC) of Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM), with approval reference number REC/03/2022 (PG/MR/48). The anonymity of all participants was preserved throughout the analysis process through the use of participant codes, and no personally identifiable information appears in the findings or discussion. To facilitate transparent and traceable presentation of interview data in Chapter 4, all interviewees were assigned participant codes as listed in Table 3.2. Enforcement officers from the Ipoh City Council (MBI) are coded as EO1 and EO2, while the enforcement officer from the Manjung Municipal Council (MPM) is coded as EO3. Sign creators from Pulau Pangkor are coded as PP1 to PP7, sign

creators from Lost World of Tambun as LW1 to LW3, and sign creators from Teluk Batik as TB1 to TB3. These codes are used consistently throughout Chapter 4 whenever interview excerpts are presented as supporting evidence, allowing readers to identify the site context and role of each participant without compromising their anonymity.

The interviews conducted were audio-recorded, transcribed, and translated into English. The transcripts were then subjected to thematic analysis, a method that involves a systematic process of selecting codes and constructing themes from the data. Thematic analysis, as outlined by Braun and Clarke (2006), is a flexible yet rigorous method for identifying, analysing, and reporting patterns within qualitative datasets. It was selected over other frameworks as it provides a balance between structure and flexibility, making it well suited to applied research contexts such as language policy and actual practices. Unlike methods that rely solely on word frequency or surface-level responses, thematic analysis enables the researcher to uncover both explicit and implicit meanings embedded in the data. For these reasons, thematic analysis was selected as the most appropriate analytic framework for interpreting interview responses.

To ensure credibility and trustworthiness, the study followed the criteria suggested by Nowell et al. (2017), which include transparency in coding decisions, theme refinement, and peer validation. The specific phases of thematic analysis adopted in this study are adapted from Braun and Clarke's (2006) six-step model and are illustrated in Figure 3.6.

The first phase involved data familiarisation, where all meanings and patterns across the excerpts were analysed and identified. The coding process was conducted manually rather than using software like NVivo or Atlas.ti. This is because it allows the researcher to interact deeply with the data during the coding and thematic development, which is considered to be crucial in interpretative qualitative research (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Charmaz, 2014). As noted by Braun and Clarke (2021), qualitative software does not conduct analysis but merely assists with data organisation. Thus, analytical depth ultimately depends on the researcher's interpretive engagement with the data. Interview excerpts were then printed out and examined line by line. Relevant excerpts were highlighted and annotated with margin notes, where initial or preliminary codes were written directly beside the data, in what is commonly referred to as 'initial coding' process. This initial coding was created to capture recurring themes such as topics, ideas, or patterns of meaning, for instance, *'BM positioning requirement', 'the practical*

use of English', 'lack of awareness', or 'flexible language choice'. These initial codes were then transferred into an Excel spreadsheet, where each excerpt was paired with its corresponding code. This allows the researcher to sort, refine, and cluster related codes into broader categories.

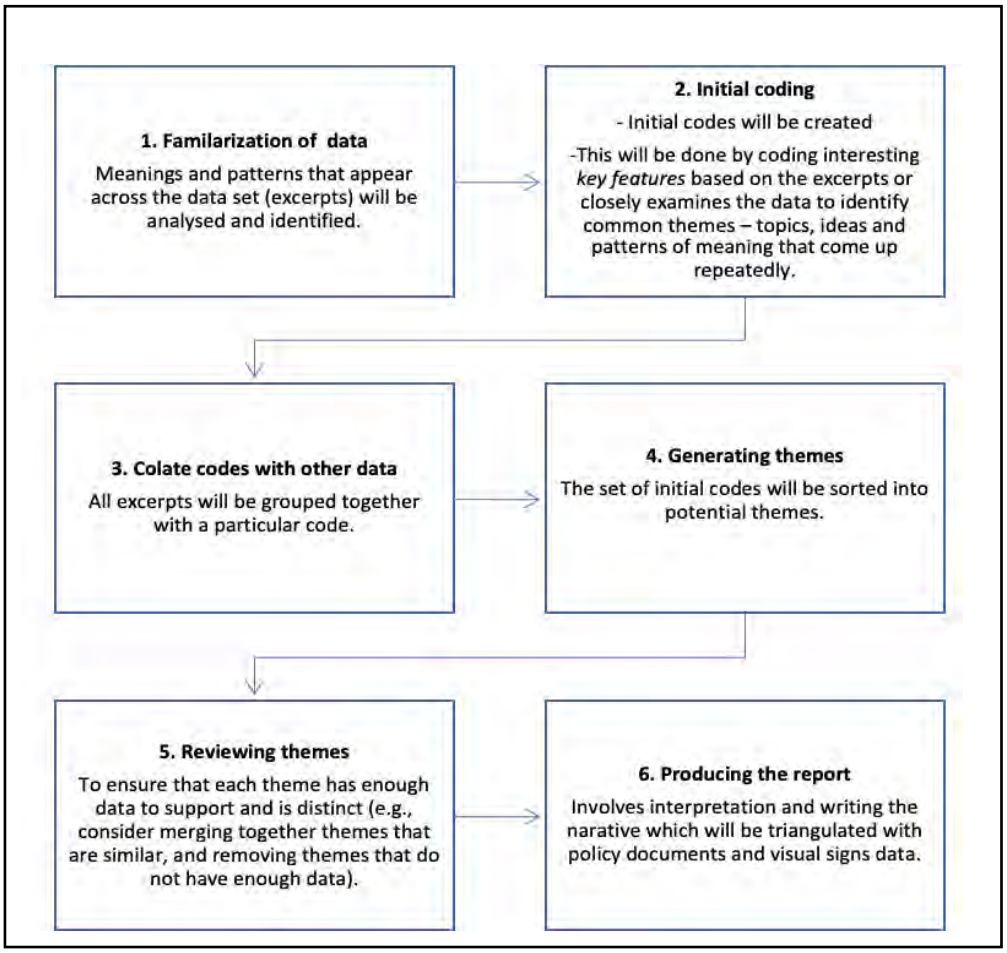

Figure 3.6 Phases of Thematic Analysis (adapted from Braun & Clarke, 2006)

To ensure consistency across all 16 interview transcripts and to minimise the risk of interpretive bias in manual coding, several measures were adopted throughout the analysis process. First, an initial coding framework was developed from the first four transcripts and refined before being systematically applied to the remaining twelve. This ensured that the same coding criteria were applied uniformly across all transcripts rather than allowing codes to drift or evolve inconsistently across the dataset. Second, the researcher returned to previously coded transcripts after coding the full dataset to check for consistency in the application of codes, a process known as constant comparison (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Any inconsistencies identified during this review

were resolved by revisiting the relevant excerpts and the coding framework definitions. Third, a sample of five transcripts representing approximately 30% of the total interview data was independently reviewed by two researchers with extensive experience in qualitative research, who confirmed that the coding was consistent with the coding framework definitions and that the emergent themes were adequately supported by the data. This multi-stage consistency checking process is consistent with established practice in qualitative thematic analysis, where the goal is consensual validation and analytical transparency (Braun & Clarke, 2021; Nowell et al., 2017).

Once the codes were developed, they were clustered into different themes based on shared meanings and constant comparison across transcripts. These themes were not predetermined but emerged directly from the data, in line with the principles of inductive thematic analysis. This is to ensure that the voices of participants were authentically represented, and that the resulting themes closely reflected key issues such as language use and preference, policy awareness, and sign practices. Theme construction involved broader interpretation and required comparison between participant groups. These themes were then reviewed multiple times to ensure each was well supported by sufficient data and distinct from others. Draft themes were checked against original codes and excerpts to ensure internal consistency.

Once the themes were fully refined and confirmed, they were triangulated with other collected sources, including official policy documents and visual signs to address the study's research questions. This step was critical not only to explore discourse within the interview but also to help clarify certain issues or ideas reported in the findings. As reported in Chapter 4, selected themes were embedded in broader interpretive discussions that synthesised qualitative insights with documents and visual analysis. This integrative approach reflects the methodology employed by Lu et al. (2020), who combined thematic and multimodal analysis for a comprehensive interpretation of the studied LL. This approach allows the study to address its central research questions concerning language use, policy adherence, and the perspectives of policy makers and sign creators in tourism spaces.

Visual Data

As for visual signs, all images of signage from the survey areas will be examined (in terms of prominence of language, position and font size, monolingual signs) and compared relatively with the policy documents as well as interview data to observe the consistencies between the policy and actual practice. This corresponds to the method of data analysis employed by Anuarudin (2017) and Backhaus (2005, 2007) which will be adapted in this study.

In terms of visual signs, all images of signage from the survey areas were examined to assess the prominence of language, position and font size, and the occurrence of monolingual signs. These images were relatively compared with the policy documents and interview data to observe consistencies between policy and actual practice. This corresponded to the method of data analysis employed by Anuarudin (2017) and Backhaus (2005, 2007).

Lived Space (Experiential Dimension)

The third and final level of analysis examines lived space or known as the experiential dimension. This dimension examines how sign readers, namely tourists and members of the public perceive, interpret, and engage with the multilingual LL of the selected tourist sites. By exploring public's perception of the LL displayed, this dimension provides the basis for addressing RQ4.

3.5.4 RQ4: Public's Perception of the Linguistic Landscape Displayed in the Selected Tourist Sites in Perak

To address research question four (RQ4), a survey questionnaire was used to explore the public's perceptions concerning the LL in the selected survey areas. The perceptions and preferences of sign readers (the public) were considered important to comprehend the entire LL (Woo & Riget, 2020). Adapted from Anuarudin (2017), Wang (2015), and Woo and Riget (2020), a pilot study of the survey questionnaire was

conducted at the initial stage to assess the validity and reliability of the questionnaire items. Subsequently, it was distributed to the public in multiple ways to ensure broad and accessible participation. For the online distribution, respondents were reached via WhatsApp and email, allowing them to access the survey conveniently through a Google Form link. For on-site data collection, the researcher provided the questionnaire using a survey link or QR code, enabling quick and easy access for respondents in person. Additionally, to accommodate those who encountered difficulties accessing the online questionnaire, paper copies of the survey were handed out directly. This multi-faceted approach successfully reached a total of 714 respondents, ensuring a comprehensive dataset for analysis.

The survey analysis comprised three parts. The first part involved factual items for demographic information elicitation from the respondents. The second part contained mostly closed-ended questions and two open-ended questions, focusing on respondents' preferences on public signs available in the survey sites. The final section (Section C) consisted of three items that represent questions specifically related to language and visual preferences. These questionnaire items reflect the public's perceptions and attitudes towards the LL presented in the selected survey areas in Perak. This study aimed to contribute new insights into LL research by exploring public's perceptions regarding the LL of the selected tourist sites in Perak.

The survey responses were analysed using descriptive statistical analysis to identify patterns in respondents' perceptions of the LL in the selected tourist sites. Specifically, frequency and percentage distributions were calculated to examine respondents' views regarding the languages most frequently observed on public signs, preferred languages for tourist signage, and preferences for multilingual display. These descriptive measures enabled the researcher to identify general trends in public perceptions towards language visibility and visual presentation within the linguistic landscape of the selected survey areas. Descriptive analysis was considered appropriate as the aim of the survey was to identify general patterns of perception rather than to test causal relationships between variables.

In addition, responses obtained from the open-ended questions were analysed qualitatively to identify recurring themes related to language preference, multilingual signage, and respondents' evaluations of the linguistic landscape in tourist spaces. The combination of quantitative descriptive analysis and qualitative interpretation allowed

the study to capture both measurable patterns and explanatory insights, thereby providing a more comprehensive understanding of public perceptions towards the linguistic landscape.

3.6 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter discussed the methodology applied in conducting the research which include the research design, methods applied for data collection and analysis. The findings of the data analysis are discussed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 4
FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the findings based on the collected data. The discussions are organised according to the research questions posed in this study. The first section covers the findings related to distribution of monolingual and multilingual signs, allocation of signs between government and private entities as well as type of signs available. The subsequent section addresses the second research question, focusing on the linguistic features or properties of the signs, such as code preference and types of text composition. The third section of this chapter addresses the third research question, presenting findings regarding the consistency between the stipulated language policy and actual practice. The fourth section focuses on the final research question, discussing the results obtained from a questionnaire distributed to gather insights into the public's perceptions of the LL displayed in the selected tourist sites in Perak.

4.2 RQ1: Types of Linguistic Landscape in the Selected Tourist Sites in Perak

The aim of research question one (RQ 1) is to analyse the varieties of linguistic landscape present in the selected prominent tourist sites. As outlined in Chapter 1, this study adopts Landry and Bourhis' (1997) definition of linguistic landscape (LL), focusing specifically on written text which encompasses road signs, names of sites, streets, buildings, places, institutions, advertisement billboards, as well as commercial shop signs. To examine the types of LL in the surveyed areas, as well as the patterns of the types of LL, the visual data was classified into three main categories: (i) authorship (government and private signs); (ii) monolingual and multilingual signs and (iii) sign type.

4.2.1 Authorship (Government and Private Signs)

The linguistic landscape of Malaysia's tourist areas is a rich tapestry of signs that serve various communicative purposes and reflect diverse linguistic practices. Thus, determining the authorship of the signs is essential as each type of sign may display different features. The authorship of these signs can be broadly categorised into government and private signs, each contributing uniquely to the public linguistic environment. Distinguishing between government and private signs provides valuable insights into how language features coexist and are constructed within a given area. It also offers a comprehensive understanding of language use in public space and its social and cultural implications (Lou, 2016). A total of 1039 signs were photographed in the selected tourist areas. To address the first research question, the collected LL data were initially classified into government and private signs. Various scholars have used different terms to discuss this distinction between 'government' and 'private' signs. For instance, Ben-Rafael et al. (2006) distinguished between government and private signs by using the terms 'top-down' and 'bottom-up,' respectively. Similarly, Scollon and Scollon (2003) referred to these categories as 'municipal' and 'commercial' discourses. However, for this study, the classification approach by Landry and Bourhis (1997) is adopted. They explained that official signs issued or displayed by government agencies are referred to as 'government' signs and signs that are written by private organizations or individuals are referred to as 'private' signs.

In Malaysia, the national language, Bahasa Melayu (BM), is prominently featured on government signs, reflecting the country's language policy that aimed at fostering national unity. In contrast, private signs are often more linguistically diverse than government signs (Gorter, 2006), which reflects the multicultural fabric of Malaysian society and the varied linguistic preferences of individuals. This linguistic diversity underscores the importance of examining language practices, especially in touristic areas. Understanding the differences between government and private signs in these areas is essential for assessing the consistencies between the stipulated language policies as well as the actual practice. Figure 4.1 displays example of government sign, while Figures 4.2 and 4.3 are examples of private signs in the selected survey areas.



Figure 4.1 An Advertisement from Manjung Municipal Council (Government Sign)



Figure 4.2 An Advertisement from a Private Agency (Private Sign)



Figure 4.3 Shop Sign from a Private Business (Private Sign)

As stated in previous chapters, data for this study were taken from the three different tourist sites: Pulau Pangkor, Lost World of Tambun and Teluk Batik. Table 4.1 provides an overview of the distribution of government and private signs across the three survey areas.

Table 4.1
Distribution of Government and Private Signs in Survey Areas (n=1039)

Site	Gov	%	Priv	%	Total	%
Pulau Pangkor	303	49.2	313	50.8	616	100
Lost World of Tambun	0	0	326	100	326	100
Teluk Batik	52	53.6	45	46.4	97	100

As shown in Table 4.1, in Pulau Pangkor, private signs slightly outnumbered government signs, with private signs comprising 50.8% and government signs accounting for 49.2% of the total signs recorded. Lost World of Tambun, however, exclusively features private signs, constituting 100% of the signs recorded in the area. Teluk Batik, by contrast, exhibits a higher prevalence of government signs, accounting for 53.6%, compared to 46.4% for private signs.

The complete absence of government signs at Lost World of Tambun warrants further clarification. Unlike Pulau Pangkor and Teluk Batik, which are open public recreational spaces subject to direct local council jurisdiction, Lost World of Tambun operates as a privately managed enclosed theme park. In privately owned commercial attractions of this nature, signage construction tends to be shaped primarily by corporate branding priorities rather than by public language policy directives, as private operators

exercise greater autonomy over the visual and linguistic identity of their premises (Ben-Rafael et al., 2006; Gorter, 2018). This is consistent with the broader pattern observed in LL studies, where privately governed spaces consistently demonstrate lower rates of policy compliance compared to publicly governed spaces (Anuarudin, 2017; Backhaus, 2007).

Interview data from this study further supports this explanation. Sign creators within Lost World of Tambun indicated that they are aware of the stipulated language policy for outdoor signs. However, they noted that signage decisions within the park are determined by Sunway's management as part of a standardised corporate visual identity, designed to project an international image consistent with the park's positioning as a premier tourist destination in Malaysia. Enforcement officers from MBI (EO1) similarly acknowledged that non-compliance with language policy in privately operated commercial premises is a recognised challenge. EO1 noted that while local council regulations technically govern signage in the broader area, enforcement within enclosed private premises is difficult in practice, as private operators have greater discretion over their internal signage construction. As this study collected only outdoor publicly displayed signs within the operational areas of each site, the non-presence of government signs finding accurately reflects the outdoor LL encountered by visitors at Lost World of Tambun.

As depicted in Table 4.1, two out of three survey areas show the dominance of private signs in their LL. This finding aligns with patterns observed in other tourist spaces, where commercial or private signs outnumbered government signs due to their economic and communication functions. For instance, studies conducted in Siargao Island, Philippines, by Bonotan (2025) and in Bali, Indonesia, by Artawa et al. (2023) revealed that private signs not only dominate numerically but also exhibits greater linguistic diversity, reflecting market strategies and globalized language use. Similar trends are also echoed in other LL studies from Petra, Jordan and Xi'an, China, where the linguistic presence of private signs surpassed the government signs (Alomoush, 2015; Tian & Tian, 2023). The dominance of private signs in tourist areas is expected as according to Ben-Rafael et al. (2006), these signs exhibit greater linguistic diversity compared to government signs. This could be explained by the high degree of interaction that exist in diverse linguistic communities portrayed in tourist areas, where people from different language backgrounds such as tourists, residents and local

business owners meet and communicate often. These interactions create a communicative environment, where the use of multiple languages becomes not only practical but also necessary for accessibility and marketing.

Reh (2021) highlighted that preference for private signs, especially in tourist areas, is based on commercial role portrayed in the LL. In particular, private signs in tourist areas are mainly favoured for their significance, especially for marketing and promotion. Hence, private signs offer flexibility for sign creators to produce attractive and engaging signs. The enforcement officers, when asked in the interview also confirmed this view. The enforcement officer (EO2) from MBI agreed that private signs are often designed to be visually appealing and linguistically accessible to a diverse range of readers. This is to ensure that the signs are effective in capturing attention and conveying information. Similar findings were noted by Yang et al. (2022) who highlighted that private signs often demonstrate responsiveness to market demands when constructing signs to suit tourist preferences. Likewise, Dong et al. (2020) and Rastitiati and Suprastayasa (2022) observed that private signs in tourist areas often employ flexible multilingual formats to maximize appeal, reinforcing the commercial motivations behind sign creation.

Insights gathered during semi-structured interviews with the sign creators further corroborate this claim. Most of the sign creators agreed that the need to attract customers leads to extensive use of private signs, as most businesses would strive to stand out in a competitive market space as shown in extract 1 below. The flexibility involved in constructing signs according to the market trends and customer preferences allow businesses to be highly responsive to market needs. This flexibility, as noted by Loo (2022), shows how private signs are mainly shaped by commercial interests rather than standardized policy regulations. Such practices reflect what Heller and Duchene (2012) and Piller and Cho (2013) describe as 'linguistic entrepreneurship', which language is mobilized as a resource to generate symbolic and economic value.

Extract 1

Researcher	: *Could you explain why you believe signs are crucial for your business?*
Sign creator (PP1)	: *For me, as business owner, signs are really important because we use them specifically to promote our business. You can ask any individual running a business, and they will also tell you the same thing…especially if the business is in tourist area. So, signs are crucial. That's where we advertise to promote our products or services that we offer. We also must remember that we are not the only ones who are doing business. Many others are in the same boat, right? So, when we promote our products or*

business, we need to be creative to attract customers. So, in business, we have to stand out in many aspects to survive and compete. One of those aspects is the signage. We make our own signs according to our creativity and the needs of our customers. For instance, the kind of language we use on signs, the design, layout and so on. For unofficial sign like mine, it is quite flexible compared to other official signs.

Besides the prevalence of private signs, government signs were also found in the survey areas. Even though the number of signs is not prevalent, the presence still provide significance within the LL. It was discovered that most of the government signs found were based on informational, warning and prohibitions as well as regulatory type of signs. Such signs play a crucial role in conveying official information, regulations, and ensuring public safety, thereby contributing to the overall functionality and coherence of the linguistic environment (Fitriani & Alamsyah, 2020; Gorter, 2018; Ivanic & Markovic, 2020). Figure 4.4 below illustrates a typical government sign in Teluk Batik, which reflect the importance of these regulatory messages.



Figure 4.4 Government Sign in Teluk Batik

The presence of government signs also reflects the adherence of language policy in the area. As emphasised by Landry and Bourhis (1997), government signs often serve to reinforce official language. This is reflected in the LL of Teluk Batik and Pulau Pangkor through manifestation of BM on most of the government signs, promoting national identity and supporting the country's language policy. During the interview, most of the sign creators in Pulau Pangkor and Teluk Batik described that the usage of BM on government signs is due to the strong affinity for BM among residents. The preference of BM signs in the survey areas clearly reflect the social and

cultural identity of the local community. BM serves not only as a common language but also as a significant marker of local identity and social cohesion. It also acts as a unifying symbol that foster community solidarity besides ensuring accessibility of public information. Culturally, the use of BM reflects the dedication of the community in preserving their linguistic heritage and expressing their cultural identity. This aligns with Backhaus's (2007) study, which explores the relationship between the LL and community values, revealing that the language choices in public signs often reflect the predominant cultural and social values of the community. The connection between language use and social and cultural values mirrors how BM signs in the survey areas serve as a practical communication tool as well as a profound expression of cultural pride and social unity.

The findings also revealed that each type of sign, whether government or private, has distinctive purposes and roles in conveying specific messages to its target readers. It is reflected that the dominance of private signs in tourist areas is primarily due to the economic and commercial role, as noted in global LL studies (Datang et al., 2022; Hamdiyah & Arts, 2019; Teo & Perono Cacciafoco, 2022). Furthermore, private sign is known for its strategic tool for business to attract international and local tourists, leveraging multilingualism to enhance accessibility and market appeal (Hamdiyah & Arts, 2019). As for the government signs, it could be deduced from the data that the preference is essential in conveying official information and ensuring public safety, reflecting language policy adherence, and promoting national identity. Although most of the LL are monopolised by the private sectors, the dual presence shows the essential functions of both types of signs in two of the survey areas. This balance is essential in catering to the demands of both local and international tourists (Datang et al., 2022; Moriarty, 2014; Nenotek et al., 2025; Rong, 2018; Teo & Perono Cacciafoco, 2022).

4.2.2 Monolingual and Multilingual Signs

The second feature examined to answer the first RQ involved analysing the distribution of monolingual and multilingual signs. This is crucial for examining the linguistic properties and textual layout within the LL of the selected tourist sites, as it uncovers the relative status and functions of languages. In tourism context, this analysis is significant as the visually coded text reveal how global and local linguistic resources

coexist and compete to shape identity, accessibility, and market appeal (Backhaus, 2007; Mubarok & Sudana, 2024). As outlined in Chapter 1 (Section 1.9), a monolingual sign contains text solely in one language, while multilingual shows sign that consists of more than one language. This classification, adopted in this study, is informed by Cenoz's (2013) interpretation of multilingual signage, as discussed in Chapters 1 and 3. Furthermore, this categorisation resonates with Wei's (2000) definition of multilingualism, as expounded upon in Chapter 1. Figures 4.5 until 4.7 exemplify instances of monolingual and multilingual signs:



Figure 4.5 Example of a Government Monolingual Sign (BM-only)



Figure 4.6 Example of Private Monolingual Sign (English-only)



Figure 4.7 Example of a Private Multilingual Sign (Eng, BM & Chinese)

Table 4.2 provides an overview of the distribution of monolingual and multilingual signs in three different tourist sites: Pulau Pangkor, Lost World of Tambun, and Teluk Batik. The findings highlight how different sectors prioritise language use. In this context, government-authored signs often feature monolingual format, especially in BM, reflecting adherence to language policy. In contrast, private-authored signs display multilingual format, indicating a strategic use of language to attract and engage diverse audiences. This contrast underscores the different priorities and purposes of each sector— government entities aim to uphold policy and national identity, while private entities prioritize marketability and accessibility.

Similar findings have been reported in tourism LL studies across Asia, where private signs exhibit multilingual and commercially driven features to accommodate and appeal to international visitors (Pathanasin, 2025; Sha, 2025). In contrast, government signs tend to uphold national identity and reinforce official language policy, as demonstrated in past studies from Labuan Bajo, Indonesia and Xi'an, China (Datang et al., 2022; Tian & Tian, 2023). Therefore, the data illustrate the influence of both government and private sectors in shaping the LL, showing how their respective language choices align with broader institutional and commercial goals. Ben-Rafael et al. (2006) mentioned that understanding the interplay between government and private influences is critical for conducting a thorough analysis of LL in tourist areas. The findings of this study reveal a predominance of monolingual signs across both government and private sectors, with fewer instances of multilingual signs.

Table 4.2
Distribution of Monolingual and Multilingual Signs in the Survey Areas (n=1039)

of signs / tourist sites	**Pulau Pangkor**		**Lost World**		**Teluk Batik**	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Monolingual (government)	257	41.7	0	0	46	47.4
Monolingual (private)	153	24.8	231	70.9	38	39.2
Multilingual (government)	46	7.5	0	0	6	6.2
Multilingual (private)	160	26	95	29.1	7	7.2
Total	**616**	100	**326**	100	**97**	100

It could also be seen from the Table 4.2 that the distribution of signs represents clear trend in the LL of the survey areas. In Pulau Pangkor, monolingual signs were notably more prevalent than multilingual signs. Most of the monolingual signs were monopolised by the government sectors with 41.7%, compared to the private sectors with only 24.8%. BM was the most used language on majority of monolingual signs in the area, with 96.1% signs were constructed by the government and 52.3% signs from the private sectors (refer to Table 4.3). Multilingual signs were more prevalent in private signs, comprising 26% of the total signs. Combination of BM and English emerged as the preferred language choice on most multilingual signs, comprising 93.5% signs from the government sectors and 55.6% from the private sectors (refer to Table 4.3).

This aligns with previous LL studies in Malaysia (Anuarudin, 2017; Ariffin et el., 2018; Zaini et al., 2021), which highlight the widespread use of BM-English multilingual signs, particularly in commercial and tourism landscapes. This preference indicates that the private sectors include diverse linguistic approach which aim to cater to a broader audience. Studies have shown that private multilingual signs in tourism context plays a crucial role in engaging international visitors while maintaining local identity (Hazeae et al., 2024; Napu, 2024). Other LL studies in various destinations also confirmed that private signs often display multilingual signs to enhance accessibility and economic appeal. For instance, Bruyel-Olmedo and Juan-Garau (2015) found that in the Bay of Palma, Mallorca, English and Spanish dominated over Catalan on private signs, reflecting a commercial strategy to attract international tourists. Similarly, Ruzaite (2017) observed that in tourist towns along the Poland–Lithuania border,

private signs frequently featured English and other languages to serve linguistically diverse visitors.

As could be seen in Table 4.2, signs at the Lost World of Tambun were likewise dominated by private monolingual signs, accounting for 70.9% of the total signs surveyed. This also indicates a strong preference for the use of a single language, with 96.1% of the signs featuring English as the most preferred code (refer Table 4.3). There was no presence of any monolingual or multilingual signs constructed by the government in this area. The absence of government signs in the area suggests that the LL is fully controlled by the private operator, which in this context refer to the Sunway Group. This was further corroborated by the interview findings, where local authorities and few sign creators mentioned that Sunway maintains centralized control over the design and placement of all signage within the park, following a corporate branding strategy. This insight helps explain the predominance of English, highlighting how the LL in Lost World of Tambun is heavily shaped by economic imperatives and commercial interest of private stakeholders than by adherence to official language policy.

Similar to the LL of Lost World of Tambun, the LL of Teluk Batik also reveals an inclination towards monolingual signs by both sectors. However, in Teluk Batik, the presence of government monolingual monopolised the LL. Government monolingual signs constitute 47.4%, followed by private monolingual signs, which amounts to 39.2% of the total. This indicates an inclination towards the preference for using a single language in public spaces by both sectors.

Table 4.3
Language Distribution for Monolingual and Multilingual Signs in the Survey Areas

Language(s)/sites	**P.Pangkor**				**Lost World**				**Teluk Batik**			
	Gov		**Pri**		**Gov**		**Pri**		**Gov**		**Pri**	
No	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Monolingual												
BM	247	96.1	80	52.3			0	0	33	78.3	30	79
BM (Jawi transliteration)	8	3.1	7	4.6			0	0	3	6.5	1	2.6
English	2	0.8	64	41.8			222	96.1	10	21.7	7	18.4
Chi	0	0	2	1.3			9	3.9	0	0	0	0
TOTAL	**257**	100	**153**	100	**0**		**231**	100	**46**	100	**38**	100

Multilingual												
BM and Eng	43	93.5	89	55.6		23	24.2	5	83.3	6	85.7	
BM and Chi			25	15.6								
BM and Arb								1	16.7			
BM and Tam	1	2.2										
Eng and Chi			17	10.6		28	29.5			1	14.3	
Eng and Lat						5	5.3					
Eng and Arb	1	2.2										
BM and Fre			1	0.6								
BM and Gr			1	0.6								
BM, Eng, Chi			24	15		16	16.8					
BM, Eng, Ita			1	0.6								
Eng, Chi, Arb						12	12.6					
Eng, BM, Kor						3	3.2					
Fre, Eng, BM			1	0.6								
Chi, BM, Eng, Tam			1	0.6								
Eng, Chi, Arb, BM						1	1.1					
Eng, Chi, Arb, Lat						7	7.4					
BM, Chi, Eng,Tam	1	2.2										
TOTAL	**46**	100	**160**	100	**0**	**95**	100	**6**	100	**7**	100	

*BM–Bahasa Malaysia/ Bahasa Melayu; Eng–English; Chi–Chinese; Tam–Tamil; Arb– Arabic; Fre–French; Gr–Greek; Ita–Italian; Kor–Korean; Lat–Latin

*(1) – language appearing on the first line; (2) – language appearing on the second line; (3) – language appearing on the third line; (4) language appearing on the fourth line

While the findings align with trends observed in other survey sites, which also showed a higher prevalence of monolingual signs, Teluk Batik stands out for its predominant use of BM by both sectors, as displayed in Table 4.3. It was observed that 78.3% of government signs and 79% of private signs in Teluk Batik were in BM. This underscores the significance of BM in the area and reinforces its role as the official and national language. In contrast, multilingual signs from both sectors contribute to a small percentage, with government signs comprising only 6.2% and private signs with 7.2%. Despite being less common, these multilingual signs constructed show the sectors' effort in showcasing different languages, particularly in sites that are highly visited by tourists. This finding is also similar to other LL studies conducted in other tourist-heavy regions, where monolingual signs still dominate despite the expectations for linguistic diversity. For instance, research conducted in Malioboro, Indonesia (Da Silva et al.,

2021), and Chiang Mai, Thailand (Thongtong, 2016) confirmed that multilingual signs were used sparingly in the areas but remains a key tool for international accessibility.

Overall, the analysis of signs prevalence in all survey sites reveals a significant presence of monolingual signs. This indicates a preference for single-language communication, especially in official message. The dominance of monolingual signs can be attributed to several imperative reasons. According to the interviewed sign creators (PP2, PP5, and TB3), practicality is a major factor when creating a sign as they are geared toward convenience and affordability. PP5 further highlighted that in many instances, signs may be constrained by limited space for information, prompting the use of monolingual signs to accommodate shorter text and facilitate information conveyed.

Furthermore, the simplicity of monolingual signs may streamline the design and production process, leading to the result of cost savings. PP2 and TB3 also explained that using one language not only improves readability, but also better in delivering vital information to its intended readers. As highlighted by Hussin et al. (2019) and Backhaus (2005), the preference for short text on signs is frequently observed because it is believed to enhance comprehension and reduce clutter, thereby making information easier for readers to digest. Svennevig (2021) also supports this notion by suggesting that monolingual signs often feature concise messages, allowing sign producers to convey information effectively without overwhelming readers with excessive material.

Another reason given by sign creators on why monolingual signs are preferred at times is because of the market demographics that they are trying to capture. This is in line with Anuarudin's (2017) study which states the copywriters held a similar opinion regarding their reasons for using monolingual on billboard signs. Based on the comments given by the copywriters in her study, it is important for the sign creators to know the predominant languages spoken by potential target market or readers as this helps sign creators make informed decisions about the most appropriate language to use. Monolingual signs that are aligned with the prevailing language of the population or that cater to specific market demands can improve visitors' experiences by making them feel appreciated and understood. This pattern is evident across the LL of tourist destinations in various countries such as Thailand, Wales, Ireland, and Indonesia, where a global language like English is commonly used in monolingual signs (Huebner, 2006; Jaworski & Thurlow, 2010; Moriarty, 2014; Susanto & Noor, 2019). This situation can be correlated with Spolsky and Cooper's (1991) concept of the 'presumed reader',

which suggests that the language used on signs is assumed to be understood by its intended readers. This can be seen in the LL of the survey sites where most monolingual signs outnumbered multilingual ones in both government and private sectors, as illustrated in Table 4.2.

The predominance of monolingual signs across the selected sites is perhaps the most counterintuitive finding of this study, given that tourist spaces are conventionally assumed to be highly multilingual environments driven by the communicative needs of diverse visitors (Kallen, 2009; Ruzaite, 2017). The high proportion of BM monolingual signs among government authored signs reflects strict policy adherence, while the significant proportion of English monolingual signs produced by the private sectors suggests that some sign creators may be making a deliberate choice to prioritise international visitor accessibility over policy compliance. This trend reveals a tension in Malaysia's tourist LL. While the policy mandates BM prominence, yet private signs prefer using English to attract diverse tourists. The high overall proportion of monolingual signs also raises concerns about the communicative accessibility of the tourist environment for visitors who are fluent in neither BM nor English, including Chinese-speaking and Arabic-speaking tourists who together constitute a significant proportion of Malaysia's inbound tourist population.

While most signs in the survey areas were monolingual, it is also crucial to acknowledge the presence of multilingual signs. Although multilingual signs were not widely seen in the survey areas, their presence still showcase efforts towards promoting linguistic diversity. This effort is evident and can be seen on signs created by local authorities as well as sign creators on the survey sites which reflect their awareness of the need to cater to diverse readers, especially in tourist areas. Backhaus (2007) stated that by providing information in multiple languages, these signs are easily accessed and understood by a broader audience. It also shows a sense of respect for different languages and cultures, which could also enhance the overall experience of tourists that leads to positive intercultural relations (Pavlenko, 2010). This claim is further supported by Yang et al. (2022), who found that multilingual restaurant signs in Chinese tourist areas not only improved communication with international tourists but also contributed to a more inclusive and culturally sensitive atmosphere, thereby benefiting both tourists and local businesses.

Few interviewed sign creators have also reported instances where they need to practice inclusivity and visibility when creating signs since the places are known to be part of the famous tourist sites in Perak. This is to fulfil the diverse language preferences of tourists from various backgrounds. With Malaysia's multicultural background, the use of multilingual signs meets the demands of both local and foreign tourists, further improving communication as well as inclusivity (Gorter & Cenoz, 2017). One of the sign creators (LW2) also mentioned that the reason for this is to ensure it is accessible to a wider range of visitors, enabling them to navigate the tourist space more effectively. For instance, to understand important instructions provided, directions, or historical facts. Another point highlighted by few sign creators in the survey areas is the commercial role factor. In the interview, PP1, PP6, PP7, LW1, LW3, and TB1 agreed that multilingual signs are useful to attract diverse linguistic backgrounds that help to expand the tourist destination's market and appeal. By catering to the linguistic needs of various visitors, tourist sites can attract a broader range of tourists and at the same time enhance economic benefits. This instance is apparent in the survey sites, whereby most of the multilingual signs were monopolised by the private entities.

The enforcement officers from MBI (EO1 and EO2) are also in agreement with the sign creators when they further clarified that the reasons for such multilingual signs are due to social-political factors and in terms of the tourism industry, it also has its economic advantages. According to one of the enforcement officers (EO1), it is common for private sectors to prioritise the usage of multilingual signs as part of their strategy to attract diverse customers. He further clarified that multilingual signs are physical representation of customer-centricity, which indirectly expressing their warm welcome to customers and responding to their preferences.

The MPM enforcement officer (EO3) also pointed out that private sectors are more flexible in constructing signs based on consumer needs and market trends due to its greater autonomy in the decision process. He believes that most multilingual signs created by private sectors are mostly intended for promotional purposes, as opposed to those produced by government sectors, which are primarily aimed to inform the public and convey their concerns that are often constrained by bureaucratic processes. This limits their adaptability and responsiveness to the evolving LL. EO3 also highlighted that it is important to acknowledge the disparity in the preference for multilingual signs between private and government sector as it may also be determined by other contextual

factors such as financial constraints, regulatory requirements, and institutional inertia. In other words, different sectors may have differing roles and constraints regarding language use on signs. Recognising the distinct approaches by both entities is crucial for understanding the broader dynamics of the LL of the survey areas.

4.2.3 Sign Type

The classification of sign type in LL studies provides crucial insight into the communicative functions and social intentions reflected within public signs. Sign types such as informational, directional, regulatory, and identification signs reflect the ways in which language is used to navigate, inform, and at times symbolize local identity within a given space. Understanding these distinctions helps contextualize the linguistic choices observed in each site, shedding light on how different sign type functions, particularly in multilingual and tourism-oriented contexts.

4.2.3.1 Pulau Pangkor

Table 4.4 illustrates the distribution of sign types in Pulau Pangkor, highlighting significant trend in the LL, particularly for government and private signs. The government signs constructed were primarily informational, directional, and for identification purposes. Notably, 25.7% of the government signs serve identification purposes, suggesting efforts to clearly mark public facilities, points of interest, and official buildings. These identification signs were mostly monolingual and primarily in BM. The use of monolingual BM signs serves to preserve and promote the local linguistic heritage. As mentioned by Backhaus (2007), the use of local language on signs in a particular region is vital in maintaining the cultural and social fabric of a community. More recent studies in multilingual contexts have similarly emphasised that government-authored signs often function as a medium for cultural preservation and national identity representation within public spaces (Mulyawan & Darmasetiyawan, 2024; Wang & Zhou, 2025). Hence, these BM signs are more than just identification tools which plays a critical role in enriching the island's cultural identity as well as history. Figures 4.8 is an example of government monolingual sign.

Table 4. 4
Type of Sign in Pulau Pangkor (n=616)

Sign type		Monolingual		Multilingual		Total	%
		No	%	No	%		
Government sign	**Informational**	42	16.3	14	30.4	56	18.5
	Directional	54	21	4	8.7	58	19.1
	Regulatory	23	8.9	2	4.3	25	8.3
	Warning& prohibitions	42	16.3	4	8.7	46	15.1
	Advertisement	8	3.1	9	19.6	17	5.6
	Identification	69	26.8	9	19.6	78	25.7
	Building names	19	7.4	4	8.7	23	7.6
Total		**257**	100	**46**	100	**303**	100
Private sign	**Informational**	5	3.3	15	9.4	20	6.4
	Directional	12	7.8	26	16.2	38	12.1
	Regulatory	9	5.9	4	2.5	13	4.2
	Warning & prohibitions	6	3.9	1	0.6	7	2.2
	Advertisement	43	28.1	88	55	131	42
	Identification	43	28.1	12	7.5	55	17.6
	Building names	35	22.9	14	8.8	49	15.7
Total		**153**	100	**160**	100	**313**	**100**



Figure 4.8 Government Identification Sign (BM-only)

In addition to identification signs, directional and informational signs were also found to be common in the area, accounting for 19.1% and 18.5% respectively. Directional signs are used to navigate the island's complex sites, making it easier for

visitors to find way to various attractions and services. On the other hand, informational signs provide key insights into the cultural and historical sights besides offering common details about landmarks, public services, and safety guidelines. This is particularly important for tourist sites, as it helps enhance visitors' experience by making the LL clearer and more accessible (Kallen, 2009; Lu et al., 2020). Figures 4.9-4.10 are examples of government directional and informational signs in the LL of Pulau Pangkor.



Figure 4.9 Government Directional Sign (BM-only)



Figure 4.10 Government Informational Sign (BM-only)

Apart from that, warning and prohibition signs were also discovered with a total of 15.1%. This type of sign can be seen in most of the areas in Pulau Pangkor, displaying

critical information that are crucial for maintaining safety and order in the island's environments, especially in alerting visitors to potential hazards as well as outlining prohibited actions restricted by the local authority. Regulatory signs, representing only 8.3% of the signs provides rules of guidelines which include operational hours, behavioural guidelines, and other essential policies related to the survey site. The limited presence might be due to the incorporation of regulatory messages into warning and prohibition signs, which convey similar directives within a single display. This reduces the need for separate regulatory signs since most of the rules and guidelines are already addressed by warning and prohibition signs. Similar practices were also found in other studies which rules are integrated into warning and prohibition signs rather than being issues as separate regulatory notices (Putra, Novela & Busri, 2024; Sieras, 2024; Svennevig; 2021). Examples of government warning and prohibition and regulatory signs are shown in Figure 4.11 and 4.12.



Figure 4.11 Government Warning & Prohibition Sign (BM-only)



Figure 4.12 Government Regulatory Sign (BM-only)

The first sign (refer figure 4.11) is issued by Majlis Perbandaran Manjung (MPM), reads "*AWAS – Kurangkan Laju, Kawasan Pelancongan" (Caution – Slow Down, Tourist Area)*. This is a monolingual warning sign written in BM, advising motorists to reduce their speed in a tourist zone. Its purpose is to ensure the safety of pedestrians, particularly tourists, by promoting cautious driving behaviour in high-traffic areas. The sign serves as a preventive measure rather than a strict prohibition, aligning with typical top-down government communication strategies where language use and content are formal and compliance-focused. The second sign (refer to Figure 4.12) is a public health notice urging adherence to Standard Operating Procedures (SOPs) related to COVID-19. The banner, titled "Patuhi SOP Yang Ditetapkan" (Follow the Established SOPs), contains a series of behavioural instructions such as wearing a face mask, avoiding touching the face, frequent hand washing, and maintaining personal hygiene. The content specifically carries a regulatory function, combining elements of caution and directives. For instance, "Elak menyentuh muka" (Avoid touching the face) and "Tutup mulut dan hidung apabila batuk atau bersin" (Cover your mouth and nose when coughing or sneezing) serve as implicit warnings grounded in public health risk prevention. Both signs were presented in BM only, reflecting compliance with the national language policy but potentially limiting accessibility for international tourists who may not be familiar with the language.

Similarly, Table 4.4 also shows government building name signs that project minimal number of signs in the area, with only 7.6%. The limited number of these signs reflect prioritisation of other sign types such as identification and informational signs over individual building names, which better serve the needs of visitors. For instance, instead of having the building sign that shows *'Padang Terbang Pulau Pangkor Stolport'*, the local authority (MPM) has provided a standalone identification sign nearby the building stating the same wording sign as a key reference. This remains recognizable without needing the formal building sign. The least category that could be seen was advertisement signs, with only 5.6%.

The limited presence of government advertisement signs in the landscape can be due to the extensive coverage by the private sectors. In many tourist spaces, private sectors often take lead in promoting their services and attractions through advertisement signs, which reduces the need for extensive government advertising in public spaces. This trend has been observed in various LL tourist spaces, such as in Labuan Bajo and

Gorontalo City (Datang et al., 2022; Napu, 2024). Similar patterns have also been reported in destinations such as Siargao Island in the Philippines and Phuket, Thailand, where private commercial signs dominate for economic and marketing purposes (Bonotan, 2025; Pathanasin, 2025), where private signs dominate the visual landscape due to their direct role in engaging customers and generating revenue. Due to this, the commercial promotion in tourism services is primarily driven by private sectors. Figures 4.13 and 4.14 are examples of building name and advertisement signs.



Figure 4.13 Government Building Name Sign (BM-only)



Figure 4.14 Government Advertisement Sign (BM & English)

Most of the signs mentioned (refer Figure 4.8 until Figure 4.13) were displayed through monolingual signs, featuring BM as the preferred language. This reflects a strong commitment to the region's cultural and linguistic heritage. The prominence of monolingual BM in these categories aligns with the local language policies which aimed

at preserving national identity and cultural authenticity (Backhaus, 2007; Kimambo & Mdukula, 2024; Pavlenko, 2010). However, the reliance on BM monolingual could also pose challenges towards tourists who may not be familiar with the language. This language barrier could impact their overall experience as well as safety.

Studies have shown that while the use of national language fosters cultural integrity and uphold identity, the lack of multilingual accessibility can hinder comprehension for international visitors (Kimambo & Mdukula, 2024; Sieras, 2024). As Fox (2012) argues, linguistic accessibility in public signs is essential not only for orientation but also for shaping tourists' perceptions of inclusion and comfort that affect their experiences. This argument continues to hold in recent LL studies, which highlights that multilingual signs enhance tourists' navigational ease, sense of belonging, and satisfaction (Ali et al., 2025; Ayyub & Rohmah, 2024).

Meanwhile, private signs in this tourist site unveil a different pattern compared to government signs in Pulau Pangkor. The findings depict 42% of these signs were advertisement for promotional purposes. This highlights the commercial nature of private businesses in attracting and informing potential customers. Most of the advertisement signs presented were multilingual which enhances the accessibility and appeal of advertisement signs aimed to catering to diverse tourist backgrounds. Sena and Laksminy (2022) and Wang and Gao (2025) emphasised that bilingual signs, especially in tourist areas are able to bridge the gap in language faced by most tourists and increase engagement through promotional content that are accessible to a wider audience. The emphasis on multilingual signs shows that the private sectors are aware and prioritise inclusion and accessibility when constructing signs in the area, especially in promoting their business and services. Figure 4.15 is one of the examples of private multilingual sign.



Figure 4.15 Private Advertisement Sign (BM & English)

Apart from that, a considerable number of private signs, amounting to 17.6% were used as identification signs, while 15.7% were designed for displaying building names. According to the enforcement officer from MPM (EO3), these types of signs are typically crucial, especially in tourist sites, as they convey the identity of businesses and locations as well as aiding in navigation and recognition. This includes name plaques and signs displaying specific locations, business labels, and logos. Such signs allow visitors to easily identify various establishments and services, which is essential in a tourism setting. Similar findings were reported in studies from Thailand and the Philippines, where building names and identification signs and plaques serve both informational and branding functions within tourism landscapes (Mendoza & Bernardo, 2025; Pathanasin, 2025; Sieras, 2024). Likewise, in China's heritage sites, such signs also act as tools of identity projection and visitor's orientation (Yang & Jiao, 2025). Nevertheless, these signs were not entirely multilingual since the site mostly used BM or English as the preferred language which indicates a reliance on monolingual sign. Figures 4.16-4.17 are examples of private identification and building name signs.



Figure 4.16 Private Identification Sign (BM-only)



Figure 4.17 Private Building Names-Coral Bay Resort, (English-only)

Signs in Pulau Pangkor also comprise of directional signs, accounting for 12.1% of the total signs and are prominently featured in multilingual signs. This is likely reflecting the island's complex layout or extensive areas that necessitate clear navigation for visitors. Meanwhile, informational signs show a lower occurrence in the area, which constitute only 6.4% of the total signs. This is followed by private regulatory and warning and prohibition signs, comprising 4.2% and 2.2% of the total, respectively. The lower percentage from these two categories could be due to the overlapping information covered by government sectors under the same category, as observed in several LL studies where regulatory and warning signs are predominantly managed through top-down or government jurisdiction rather than private entities (Maharani et al., 2025; Napu, 2024; Sudarmanto et al., 2025). Figure 4.18-4.21 are examples of the private signs discussed.



Figure 4.18 Private Directional Sign (Chinese, BM, English & Tamil)



Figure 4.19 Private Informational Sign (English-only)



Figure 4.20 Private Regulatory Sign (English-only)



Figure 4.21 Private Warning & Prohibition Sign (BM & English)

The diversity of sign types in Pulau Pangkor reflects the development in its tourism destinations. By featuring both monolingual and multilingual signs across various categories, it portrays a unique blend and balance between the needs of tourists and the preservation of its cultural essence. Similar patterns have been documented in other tourism landscapes such as Yogyakarta (Da Silva et al., 2021) and Nusa Dua, Bali (Rastitiati & Suprastayasa, 2022), where various types of signs employed both monolingual and multilingual to cater to diverse readers while also reflecting local cultural values.

4.2.3.2 Lost World of Tambun

It is noted that the LL of the area is solely constructed by private sectors, reflecting the complex interplay between commercial interests and visitors' guidance. Table 4.5 reveals the distribution of sign types found in the Lost World of Tambun.

Table 4.5
Type of Sign in Lost World of Tambun (n=326)

		Monolingual		Multilingual		Total	%
	Sign type	**No**	**%**	**No**	**%**		
Private Signs	**Informational**	65	28.1	53	55.8	118	36.2
	Directional	23	10	1	1.1	24	7.4
	Regulatory	40	17.3	13	13.7	53	16.3
	Warning & prohibitions	0	0	6	6.3	6	1.8

	Advertisement	42	18.2	17	17.9	59	18.1
	Identification	58	25.1	5	5.3	63	19.3
	Building names	3	1.3	0	0	3	0.9
Total		**231**	100	**95**	100	**326**	100

The data indicates a varied range of sign types, with a total of 326 signs, categorised into monolingual (70.8%) and multilingual (29.1%). Among these, informational signs were the highest type of sign displayed in the area with a total of 36.2%. Within the informational signs, there was a strong presence of monolingual signs at 55.1%, compared to 44.9% for multilingual signs. The presence of this sign type is essential in conveying vital information about the theme park's services, attractions, and safety measures. Despite the prevalence of monolingual signs, the use of multilingual signs also shows a vital role in the LL of Lost World of Tambun. One of the sign creators (LW1) in the theme park confirmed this during the interview, where he explained that it is important for the site to include multilingual signs as it helps to demonstrate the park's efforts to make all information accessible to a broader audience, hence improving the overall tourist experience. Figure 4.22 below is an example of informational sign by private sector.



Figure 4.22 Informational Sign (English, BM & Chinese)

As could be seen in Table 4.5, the identification signs, which represent 19.3% of the total signs, occupy the second most common type of sign in the LL of Lost World

of Tambun. Most of the signs displayed were monolingual and used English as the main language. Identification signs play a vital role, especially in theme park setting as it helps visitors to locate specific key areas and facilities. For example, themed zones at the survey site, such as Luminous Forest, Hippo Kingdom, Lost World Tiger Valley, and Haunted Chambers are distinctly featured in identification signs. This clear coded labelling not only help visitors to find and explore different attractions but also contribute to the park's goal of providing an engaging and accessible environment for all visitors.

While identification signs play a critical role in guiding visitors throughout the theme park, advertisement signs also hold significant importance, particularly in the commercial aspect of the Lost World of Tambun. All interviewed sign creators in Lost World of Tambun (LW1, LW2, and LW3) also agreed and concurred that most of the businesses and services in this area depend highly on advertisement signs. They further emphasised that such signs are essential in marketing their products or services and drawing the attention of potential customers. These are the reasons why advertisement signs were also dominant in the area, accounting for 18.1% of all signs. Much like other signs in the park, a significant number of these signs were also monolingual, primarily coded in English. Figures 4.23 and 4.24 illustrate examples of identification and advertisement signs.



Figure 4.23 Identification Sign (English-only)



Figure 4.24 Advertisement Sign (English-only)

In addition, regulatory signs form another essential component in the park area. A notable proportion of these signs were found to be significant, accounting for 16.3% of all signs. The significant number of regulatory signs is necessary to ensure visitors comply with the rules and regulations set by the private authorities in order to maintain safety within the area. This is particularly crucial for places like theme parks, where visitors' safety and smooth operation are paramount. Signs displayed in this category were mostly monolingual, with English as the main language. This preference likely serves to accommodate a diverse range of visitors, especially foreigners. These findings correspond with previous studies by Hazaea et al. (2024) in Abha, a southern tourist destination in Saudi Arabia, and Wu, Yang, and Xue (2022) in South Luogu Lane, a popular tourist site in Beijing, China, both of which highlight the dominant use of English in regulatory signs within tourist spaces as a strategy to enhance clarity and ensure safety.

In contrast to the regulatory signs, warning and prohibition signs represent a smaller proportion, constituting only 1.9% of the total. These signs were exclusively multilingual, reflecting the park's commitment to ensure that critical safety and restriction information displayed is understood by all visitors. The lower presence of the signs can be attributed to their specific purpose as they are only used in areas where there is an immediate safety concern or where access is restricted. In other words, warning and prohibition signs are strategically placed where they are most needed, unlike any other signs (e.g., identification and informational) which are needed

throughout the park. Figures 4.25 and 4.26 are examples of the regulatory and prohibition sign.



Figure 4.25 Regulatory Sign (English-only)



Figure 4.26 Warning & Prohibition Sign (English & Chinese)

Meanwhile, directional signs represent 7.4% of the total signs. It provides navigational assistance which mostly written in English, with non-English speakers aided by universal symbols. Following this is the building name signs, which reflect the lowest visibility in the LL, comprising just 0.9%. The minimal presence of building name signs could be attributed to the primary focus of the park which is on attractions

and thematic sites rather than individual buildings. Building name signs available were mostly coded in English. Figures 4.27 and 4.28 are examples of directional and building name signs.

Based on the overall findings, it can be inferred that the existence of different type of signs produced by the private sector serves significant and purposeful communicative functions. The findings revealed that Lost World of Tambun provides dynamic spaces in which different sign types serve distinct and complementary functions. Directional signs guide visitors through the physical space of the park, informational signs describe attractions and exhibits, regulatory signs communicate safety requirements, and commercial signs promote products and experiences available within the park. This purposeful variety demonstrates that the private sector has strategically deployed different sign types to address the simultaneous communicative demands of a large-scale tourist attraction, ensuring visitor safety, facilitating navigation, enhancing the visitor experience, and reinforcing the park's corporate brand identity. In other words, the range of sign types observed at Lost World of Tambun is not incidental but reflects a deliberate and functional approach to managing the informational and experiential needs of a diverse visitor. This pattern is particularly evident in paid tourist attractions such as theme parks, as noted by Teo and Perono Cacciafoco (2022), where diverse sign types are deliberately crafted to address the multilingual needs of both international and local visitors. Such an approach not only enables tourists to navigate the space effectively but also allows them to engage with the exhibits meaningfully.



Figure 4.27 Directional Sign (English-only)

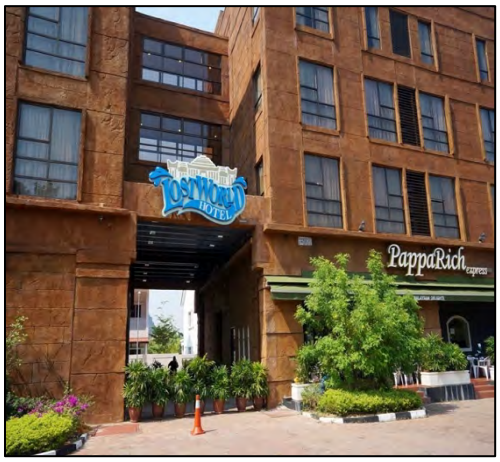

Figure 4.28 Building Name Sign (English-only)

4.2.3.3 Teluk Batik

The distribution of sign types in Teluk Batik also varies between the government and private sectors, with notable differences in monolingual and multilingual signs. As shown in Table 4.6, the number of government signs was slightly higher than private signs. In total, 52 signs were constructed by the government, while 45 signs were from the private sector. This indicates that government authored signs constitute a significant presence in the LL of Teluk Batik, reflecting the site's status as a publicly governed recreational space. The prevalence of government signs at this site appears to have contributed to a broader pattern of BM dominance across the LL, with BM featuring prominently on signs produced by both government and private sectors alike. This pattern reflects a degree of linguistic consistency across the LL of Teluk Batik, where BM serves as the primary language of public communication. It also serves to reinforce the cultural and linguistic identity of the local community, which is particularly significant in tourist spaces where language visibility contributes to a sense of place and cultural authenticity (Gorter, 2022). Besides BM, English also emerged as the second most preferred language and frequently appeared on many signs which is believed to accommodate the communicative needs of international visitors.

Table 4.6
Type of Sign in Teluk Batik (n=97)

	Sign type	Monolingual		Multilingual		Total	%
		No	%	No	%		
Government sign	**Informational**	10	21.7	2	33.3	12	23.1
	Regulatory	5	10.9	3	50	8	15.4
	Warning & prohibitions	13	28.3	1	16.7	14	27
	Advertisement	4	8.7	0	0	4	7.7
	Identification	12	26	0	0	12	23.1
	Building names	2	4.3	0	0	2	3.9
Total		**46**	100	**6**	100	**52**	100
Private sign	**Informational**	9	23.7	3	42.9	12	26.6
	Directional	4	10.5	0	0	4	8.9
	Regulatory	6	15.8	0	0	6	13.3
	Warning & prohibitions	3	7.9	0	0	3	6.7
	Advertisement	3	7.9	2	28.6	5	11.1
	Identification	8	21	2	28.6	10	22.2
	Building names	5	13.2	0	0	5	11.1
Total		**38**	100	**7**	100	**45**	100

Among the signs constructed by the government sectors, warning and prohibition signs dominated the landscape, making up 27% of the total signs. The high prevalence emphasises the critical role of the sign in the area, which indicates a strong focus on safety and behavioural guidelines. Figure 4.29 exemplifies a prohibition sign that emphasises on preventing accidents and protecting the natural and cultural resources of the area. The sign not only function as a precautionary measure, but also as reminders for visitors to help preserve the integrity of Teluk Batik's environment.



Figure 4.29 Warning and Prohibition Sign (BM-only)

In addition to warning and prohibition signs, identification and informational signs were equally significant, each accounting for 23.1%. These signs were commonly found in tourist-centric sites like Teluk Batik, as they provide necessary information and navigation. The presence of these kinds of signs helps the site to be more accessible, engaging, and user-friendly for both local and international tourists. Thus, reflecting the effective management of the tourism landscape. Similar findings were reported by Yang, Xue, and Song (2022) in their LL study of tourist signs in Chinese urban areas, where clear and strategically placed informational signs helped visitors significantly and improved the quality of the visitor experience. Examples of these signs are shown in Figure 4.30 and 4.31.



Figure 4.30 Identification Sign (BM-only)



Figure 4.31 Informational Sign (English-only)

In contrast to identification and informational signs, the presence of regulatory and advertisement signs in the landscape was limited, accounting for 15.4% and 7.7% of the total signs, respectively. Despite its own crucial roles in maintaining order and safety, as well as promoting local sites and services, these signs were less numerous compared to other prevailing categories. The limited presence could be attributed to several factors. For instance, regulatory signs were limited because most of the safety and behavioural guidelines were comprehensively addressed by the warning and prohibition signs. This finding aligns with Burdick's (2012) study, which noted that regulatory signs within tourist spaces are often embedded in other sign types, especially those designed for caution or control. Meanwhile, the limited presence of advertisement signs by the government sector could be due to the common practice of the private sectors in taking the lead in constructing these signs. According to Anuarudin (2017) and Datang et al. (2022), it is typical for private sectors to dominate the advertising landscape, as they play a crucial role in promoting products and services as well as local attractions. As such, the government may rely on private sectors to lead in the creation and placement of advertisement signs. Figure 4.32 and 4.33 shows the examples of the government regulatory and advertisement signs.



Figure 4.32 Government Regulatory Sign (BM-only)



Figure 4.33 Government Advertisement Sign (BM & English)

Building name signs constructed by the government were the least visible, constituting only 3.9% of the total signs. This could be attributed to prioritization of other essential information through regulation and informational signs compared to individual building entities. Example of this sign is shown in Figure 4.34.



Figure 4.34 Government Building Name Sign (BM-only)

Private signs show a unique representation of signs in the landscape whereby strong presence of monolingual signs were found, accounting for 84.4% of the total. Private sectors in the area emphasise more on informational and identification signs, which represent 26.6% and 22.2% of their total signs, respectively. Similar to other survey sites, the higher occurrence of these signs was due to the importance of communicating services, facilities, as well as business identities. This trend has been widely observed in other tourism landscapes, where private signs function as a tool for marketing, orientation, and brand visibility (Mendoza & Bernardo, 2025; Pathanasin, 2025; Sha, 2025). Studies from China and Indonesia also reveal that informational and identification signs play dual roles, which guide visitors and reinforcing local business identity within global tourism markets (Azzahro et al., 2025; Tian & Tian, 2023).

Private regulatory, directional, as well as warning and prohibition signs were less noticeable in Teluk Batik, accounting for only 13.3%, 8.9% and 6.7% of their total signs, respectively. The limited presence of these signs may be attributed to Teluk Batik's simple and accessible layout, which reduces the demand for such signs in the area. Teluk Batik features an open, linear spatial arrangement with minimal intersections, pathways, or segmented zones, making the site less complex and allowing visitors to visually navigate their surroundings with ease. This is consistent with LL research conducted in Kotabaru Malang, Indonesia, by Ayyub and Rohmah (2024), where the need for directional and regulatory signs was less as the site's layout is less complex.

Another reason for this could be due to the existing functional signs (regulatory, directional, warning and prohibition signs) that have already been constructed by the government sectors. Private sectors may not focus on these types of signs as they

emphasise more on other impactful signs, such as advertisement, informational, and identification signs, which directly serve their commercial interest by attracting visitors, promoting services as well as enhancing the site's visibility. This instance, as highlighted by Lu et al. (2020), is commonly practice and documented as private sector tends to emphasise more on commercial and promotional type of signs. Torkington (2009) further support this claim, noting that in tourist spaces, private sectors often invest in signs aimed at branding and marketing, whereas government sectors provide the foundational signs related to rules, safety, and navigation. It could be deduced that the limited number of functional signs (e.g., directional, regulatory, warning and prohibition) produced by private entities in the area could be viewed as a strategic choice rather than a shortcoming.

For advertisement signs, the category was found to be under-represented in the LL of Teluk Batik, with only 11.1% of the total. The limited presence of advertisement signs is quite unforeseen for a tourist site like Teluk Batik, especially since EO1 and EO2 highlighted that advertisement signs are typically visible in tourist areas, particularly those initiated by the private sectors. These findings also deviate from trends observed in other Southeast Asian tourist landscapes. For instance, Datang et al. (2022) and Maharani et al. (2025) noted a high density of private commercial and advertisement signs in tourism hubs such as Labuan Bajo and Bali, where signs are strategically used to enhance economic visibility. However, Thongtong (2016) documented different trend in Chiang Mai, where commercial signs were deliberately downplayed to maintain the aesthetic or cultural appeal of the area. This demonstrates that while advertisement signs are typically expected in tourist spaces, its implementation or practicality can be influenced by both economic as well as environmental considerations.

Similarly, building name signs appeared to be the least common among other private signs, with only 11.6% of the total. This could be due to similar reason or rationale discussed under government tailored building name signs, where sign creators and authorities may not prioritise individual building unless it serves a specific purpose for tourist, such as identifying key attractions or navigational purposes. This pattern is also reflected in Maharani et al.'s (2025) findings where signs in Bali tend to emphasise more on promotional content rather than statistic identifiers like building names. This shows that in tourist areas, signs are often created based on how useful or appealing

they are to visitors, rather than just for providing basic information. Figures 4.35-4.41 illustrate the examples of private signs in the LL of Teluk Batik.



Figure 4.35 Private Informational Sign (BM-only)



Figure 4.36 Private Identification Sign (BM & English)



Figure 4.37 Private Regulatory Sign (BM-only)



Figure 4.38 Private Directional Sign (English-only)



Figure 4.39 Private Warning and Prohibition Sign (BM-only)



Figure 4.40 Private Advertisement (BM & English)



Figure 4.41 Private Building Name Sign (English-only)

Overall, the findings highlight the significant roles of both government and private sectors in constructing the LL of Teluk Batik. Their collaborative efforts are reflected in the diversity of sign types available on sites, which addresses the area's essential needs and enhances its accessibility for various audiences. These signs not only serve practical purposes but also align with the national language policies, particularly the use of BM alongside other languages. Factors such as geographical layout, authorship, visitor demographics, and local economic activities influence the language choice, leading to a balanced LL that caters to both locals and tourists. Although there are minimal occurrences of multilingual signs in the area, their significant presence still highlights efforts to represent the area's cultural and linguistic diversity, enriching the visitor experience and fostering a sense of inclusivity (Da Silva et al., 2021; Maharani et al., 2025).

4.2.4 RQ1: Types of Linguistic Landscape - Conclusion

RQ1 examined the types of LL found in the survey areas. In examining the types of LL in the survey areas, the visual data were categorised into three categories: (i) government and private signs, (ii) monolingual and multilingual signs, and (iii) types of signs. These categories are essential in identifying the types of LL in order to observe the trends found in the selected tourist sites.

The findings reveal that each type of sign in a LL, whether produced by the government or private sectors, exhibits its own distinct patterns of language use. In terms of the distribution between government and private signs, the findings show that the linguistic landscapes were monopolised by the private sectors, specifically at Pulau Pangkor and Lost World of Tambun. This is not an unexpected finding, as private signs play a central role in shaping the visual landscape of tourist spaces due to their direct involvement in commercial promotion, customer engagement, and linguistic accessibility (Artawa et al., 2023; Djonda & Madrunio, 2023; Moriarty, 2014; Mulyawan et al., 2022). While government signs were fewer in number, their presence remains critical in fulfilling key communicative and symbolic functions such as conveying official information, enforcing regulations, promoting public safety, and upholding national language policy and identity. The coexistence of both government

and private signs, particularly in Pulau Pangkor and Teluk Batik, reflects a balanced and functional LL that serves both institutional and commercial purposes.

The data also reveal distinct patterns in the use of monolingual and multilingual signs. The number of monolingual signs superseded the multilingual signs across both government (refers to Pulau Pangkor and Teluk Batik) and private signs (refers to Lost World of Tambun). Most monolingual signs in Pulau Pangkor and Teluk Batik prominently featuring BM, thereby reinforcing its role as the official and national language. This was consistent across both government and private signs, which shows that BM remains the dominant and preferred code in these areas, functioning as both a 'required code' in terms of regulatory compliance and, in many cases, a 'preferred code' reflecting genuine community and operator language choice. In contrast, Lost World of Tambun demonstrated a strong presence of English monolingual signs. These findings suggest that the predominance of monolingual signs reflects both a practical and symbolic choice, influenced by the different authorship and governance structures of the three survey sites. However, the importance of inclusivity through multilingual signs in the LL of tourist sites should not be overlooked. Hazaea et al. (2024) and Wu, Yang, and Xue (2022) emphasised that a balanced LL should integrate both national identity and inclusivity, offering a more comprehensive strategy for managing communication and accessibility in tourist spaces.

In addition, the LL of the survey sites reflects a variety of sign types, including identification, informational, regulatory, warning and prohibition, directional, and advertisement signs. This diversity corresponds with the development of tourism in Malaysia and illustrate how public signs are designed to meet the functional requirements of each area while enhancing accessibility and engagement for a wide range of audiences. The variety of sign types also reveals a collaborative effort between government and private sectors to construct a landscape that is defined not merely by quantity, but by communicative intent and strategic purpose. As such, the signs found in the survey sites function as strategic tools shaped by policy, commercial priorities, and the communicative needs of diverse visitors. Comparing the sign type distributions across the three tourist sites reveals how governance structure fundamentally shapes the LL. The variation of LL across the three sites underscores that the construction of LL in tourist spaces is not a uniform process but is shaped by the interplay between governance structures, commercial priorities, and the negotiation between top-down

regulatory forces and bottom-up operator decisions. This finding extends the existing literature on top-down and bottom-up sign production (Ben-Rafael et al., 2006) by demonstrating that the relevant analytical distinction in tourist spaces is not simply government versus private but also between direct government management and delegated private management, where the latter, as evidenced at Lost World of Tambun, allows commercial branding priorities to supersede regulatory language requirements.

4.3 RQ2: Linguistic Features of the Linguistic Landscape in the Selected Tourist Sites of Perak

The second research question aimed to identify the linguistic features present on signs in the selected tourist sites. As stated in Chapter 1, linguistic features refer to the representation of languages in the LL. This encompasses aspects such as code preference, which examines language arrangement and font size, as well as types of composition (focusing on the presence of translations). Investigating these variables is essential to evaluate the consistencies between stipulated policies and actual practices in the survey sites.

4.3.1 Code Preference

Scollon and Scollon (2003) proposed the concept of code preference, which refers to the order and prominence of languages on multilingual signs. This concept emphasises the decisions made concerning the order of languages, the size of the text, and the overall visibility of each language being displayed on the signs. In examining the code preference, attention was given to the language choice on signs, where preferences for specific languages (codes) can be seen in the arrangement of texts and the font size. The placement of a certain language as well as the prominence of the font size used on a sign shows whether it is considered as the 'preferred code' or not. Studies have shown that in multilingual signs, these linguistic indicators (preferred code) play a critical role in establishing language hierarchy and perceived importance (Hamzah et al., 2023; Jamil & Kausar, 2021; Nikolaou, 2017). The analysis of code preference focuses on how languages were placed, and the font sizes used on the signs. The

description of these variables, including the conformity of actual practices within the stipulated policies, is briefly elaborated, and further discussed in Section 4.3.

This first section discusses the order of appearance of languages on signs, followed by the preferred font sizes. The following section explores the composition of texts, focusing on the types of translations and text composition found on the multilingual signs.

4.3.1.1 Language Placement/ Appearance

In multilingual signs, the placement and visibility of language often indicate a hierarchy of linguistic prominence, with one language typically functioning as the preferred code. The preferred code on signs is determined by the appearance of languages in multilingual texts. According to Scollon and Scollon (2003), when signs contain two or more languages, the language that appears on top, on the left, or in the centre of a sign is regarded as the 'preferred code'. This order of placement shows the hierarchy of certain languages and would, most often than not, contain the most relevant information or function as the main mean of communications for the intended readers. Figures 4.42 and 4.43 are examples of the order of appearance for signs available in the selected survey sites.



Figure 4.42 Example of the Order of Appearance on a Multilingual Informational Sign [Eng(1), Chi(2), Arb(3)]



Figure 4.43 Example of the Order of Appearance on a Multilingual Advertisement [BM(1), Eng(2)]

Figure 4.42 shows how English is placed on the first line of the text and has a larger font size than Chinese and Arabic. According to the hierarchy of language placement described by Scollon & Scollon (2003), this demonstrates that English is the preferred language that is given priority. This is also an example of a sign that fails to comply with the regulations imposed by the local authorities due to the absence of BM. Based on the policies and regulations issued by Ipoh City Council or Majlis Bandaraya Ipoh (MBI), all advertisements or signs should be written in BM whether solely in the national language or together with any other languages. The policy also states that if used with other language(s), BM must be displayed as the prominent language, regardless of its font size, colour, and position. In this case, the omission of BM on the sign directly contravenes these policy requirements.

In contrast, Figure 4.43 shows texts demonstrating a preference for BM over English. This can be seen from the order of BM words that appeared before the English words. The font used in BM was also larger than the one in English, reinforcing the priority given to the national language. Such variations in code preference reflect the complexities and inconsistencies in LL practices, as highlighted by several multilingual research (Ben-Rafael et al., 2006; Blackwood, Lanza, & Woldemariam, 2016; Putz & Mundt, 2019; Zhang, 2024). Understanding these differences can provide insight into the effectiveness of language policies and their implementation in multilingual settings.

Table 4.7
Order of Appearance in Multilingual Signs in the Survey Sites (n=314)

Language(s)/sites	P.Pangkor(n=207)				Lost World(n=83)				Teluk Batik (n=9)			
	Gov		Pri		Gov		Pri		Gov		Pri	
No	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
BM(1) Eng(2)	41	89.1	66	41.3			14	14.7	5	83.3	5	71.4
BM(1) Chi(2)			23	14.4								
BM(1) Arb(2)									1	16.7		
Tam(1) BM(2)	1	2.2										
Eng(1) BM(2)	2	4.3	23	14.4			9	9.5			1	14.3
Eng(1) Chi(2)			14	8.8			23	24.2			1	14.3
Eng(1) Lat(2)							5	5.3				
Eng(1) Arb(2)	1	2.2										
BM(1) Fre(2)			1	0.6								
BM(1) Gr(1)			1	0.6								
Chi(1) BM(2)			2	1.3								
Chi(1) Eng(2)			3	1.9			5	5.3				
BM(1) Eng(2) Chi(3)			14	8.8								
BM(1) Eng(2) Ita(3)			1	0.6								
BM(1) Chi(2) Eng(3)			8	5			3	3.2				
Eng(1) BM(2) Chi(3)			1	0.6			8	8.4				
Eng(1) Chi(2) BM(3)			1	0.6			4	4.2				
Eng(1) Chi(2) Arb(3)							12	12.6				
Eng(1) BM(2) Kor(3)							3	3.2				
Fre(1) Eng(2) BM(3)			1	0.6								
Chi(1) BM(2) Eng(3)							1	1.1				
Chi(1) BM(2) Eng(3) Tam(4)			1	0.6								
Eng(1) Chi(2) Arb(3) BM(4)							1	1.1				
Eng(1) Chi(2) Arb(3) Lat(4)							7	7.4				
BM(1) Chi(2) Eng(3) Tam(4)	1	2.2										
TOTAL	**46**	100	**160**	100	**0**		**95**	100	**6**	100	**7**	100

*BM–Bahasa Malaysia/ Bahasa Melayu; Eng–English; Chi–Chinese; Tam–Tamil; Arb– Arabic; Fre–French; Gr–Greek; Ita–Italian; Kor–Korean; Lat–Latin

*(1) – language appearing on the first line; (2) – language appearing on the second line; (3) – language appearing on the third line; (4) language appearing on the fourth line

Table 4.7 reveals that most of the signs in the survey areas prominently featured BM as the preferred code, with the language being placed either on the first line of the text or on the left when the text is horizontal. Most multilingual signs in Pulau Pangkor gives priority to BM (placing BM on the first line) with 42 out of 46 government signs (91.3%) and 114 out of 160 private signs (71.3%). Similar situation also reflected in

Teluk Batik with 84.6% with both the government and private signs showing preference for the national language, consistent with the stipulated language policy. This indicates that BM is the preferred code, align with the description made by Scollon and Scollon (2003). In other multilingual and tourism contexts, similar patterns have been observed, where the dominance of national language is shaped by policy and identity representation. For example, a study on shop signs in Semenyih, Malaysia, found extensive strategic use of BM alongside other languages (Mansoor et al., 2023). Likewise, study in Baubau City, Indonesia, found that Indonesian language consistently occupied a dominant position in multilingual signs, reflecting national language policy and local identity representation (Oda, Duli & Lukman, 2025). This situation can also be categorised under 'symbolic value' condition within the preference model defined by Spolsky and Cooper (1991).

As previously discussed, the symbolic value condition, as defined by Backhaus (2007), states that signs should be written in a language in which the sign-writers wish to be identified. In this context, the preference for BM in the LL of the selected survey sites reflects sign creators' wish to promote themselves as Malaysian and recognise BM as the country's official language. This choice not only reflects national identity but also indicates a strong commitment towards cultural and linguistic norms, reinforcing a sense of local authenticity besides adhering to the official language policy (Li et al., 2016; Spolsky & Cooper, 1991).

Majority of the sign creators in the survey sites also confirmed this during the interview. Many of them expressed a strong preference for prioritising BM, highlighting the importance of establishing their identity as Malaysian. They recognised the importance of prioritising BM on signs, viewing it as a way to align themselves with national values. One respondent (PP5) mentioned that "*…prioritising BM on signs is not just about following the regulations implemented, but more about showing pride in our national language and culture".* Another sign creator (TB3) stated that prioritising BM on signs also fosters a sense of local authenticity, making the signs more relatable and helping to develop sense of trust and acceptance towards the local community and businesses. These responses clearly mark the relationship between regulatory compliance and symbolic value. As mentioned earlier, the preference for BM in the LL of the selected survey sites not only serves to meet regulatory requirements (as a required code) but also to symbolise the identity and cultural affiliation (symbolic

value) of one's community. This dual role indicates how linguistic choices on signs can be influenced by both legal obligations and cultural identity, aligning with the views made by Landry and Bourhis (1997).

Besides BM, English was also chosen as the preferred code on many signs, particularly in the Lost World of Tambun, where 72 out of 95 private signs (75.8%) featured English. Similar instance was also found in Pulau Pangkor, with 39 out of 60 private signs (65%) and 3 out of 46 government signs (6.5%) preferred to use English. Whereas in Teluk Batik, only 2 out of 7 private signs (28.6%) employed English. English is regarded as a prestigious language in most of the tourist areas (Mubarok et al., 2024; Teo & Perono Cacciafoco, 2022). These findings align with most LL research in tourist areas, where English was recognised as the second most significant language in most signs (Bruyel-Olmedo & Juan-Garau, 2015; Dong et al., 2020; Mubarok et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2020). The overwhelming manifestation of English signs in private signs may indeed be seen as a degree of internalisation, where it indicates the western colonial influence on Malaysia. Moreover, the prevalent use of English could also be due to the promotion of the economy rendered by the tourism industry, which aligns with the statement put forth by Dong et al. (2020), especially in advertisement signs. Based on this context, English as the preferred code in most private signs, in terms of placement, could be classified under the 'presumed reader' condition, serves as a familiar language shared by both sign creators and presumed readers.

This study also showed instances where languages other than English, such as Chinese were preferred on several signs. These instances were found only in Pulau Pangkor and the Lost World of Tambun, indicating a failure to comply with the policy set by the local authorities. Based on the regulations issued by both Majlis Perbandaran Manjung (MPM) and Majlis Bandaraya Ipoh (MBI), BM must be included on all signs and must appear as the dominant language, regardless of whether other languages are used. The prioritisation of Chinese on these signs, without the inclusion or proper prominence of BM, contravenes the language policy requirements. The absence of BM not only violates the policy but also undermines efforts to promote national identity as well as uphold linguistic standardization in Malaysian public spaces.

One of the enforcement officers (EO2) when asked during the interview on this matter explained that the choice of language, particularly by private entities is very much dependent on their market demand, especially in tourist areas. Figure 4.44 is an

example of a sign in Lost World of Tambun where Chinese was given priority in terms of language placement. One of the sign creators in the theme park (LW2) concurred EO2's statement, explaining that the prioritisation of Chinese on some signs is mainly due to the high volume of Chinese-speaking tourists from both local and international. According to LW2, incorporating Chinese in multilingual signs helps Chinese-speaking tourists feel welcome and respected, apart from fulfilling the demand for services and information. This strategy improves the overall tourist experience and encourages return visits. Based on this reason, the use of Chinese as the preferred code in private signs can be best interpreted by the 'presumed reader' condition since the language is used to ensure readability by the intended public audience.



Figure 4.44 Example of the Order of Appearance on a Multilingual Advertisement [Chi(1), Eng(2)]

Furthermore, another reason why some sign creators, particularly from the Chinese community, prefer to use Chinese on signs is due to the demographic composition of the sites. The historical presence and influence of Chinese community in Malaysia have shaped the LL of these tourist sites. The significant number of substantial Chinese community, and locals who speak Chinese, necessitates the inclusion of Chinese on signs to cater to this demographic. PP7, a sign creator from Pulau Pangkor mentioned that aside from making Chinese as a practical choice for daily communication as well as business among the Chinese community, it also reflects strong ties with the Chinese culture which many Chinese people continue to embrace and value as part of their heritage. This preference can also be categorised under the 'symbolic value', where the choice of language on signs indicates the community's identity and cultural expression.

From the overall analysis, the placement of languages in multilingual signs in tourist sites is crucial as it reveals the actual practice and the hierarchy and power relations between languages in public spaces. What could be observed based on the survey sites is that the placement of BM on the first line or on top of the text of a sign serves as a dual purpose: fulfilling the regulatory requirements (required code) as well as symbolizing cultural identity (symbolic value condition). These signs can be seen as conforming with the stated policy, similar to other LL studies conducted in Malaysia (Beh, 2017; Hamzah et al., 2023; Woo & Riget, 2020).

In contrast, English is prioritised for its practicality in catering to tourists, which could be categorised under 'presumed-reader skill'. Meanwhile, Chinese fulfils both the 'presumed-reader skill' and 'symbolic value condition' as it reflect both market demands and cultural expression. Such practices are consistent with trends documented in Singapore's tourist landscapes, where English often functions as a global lingua franca, and Chinese is commonly used due to the demographic and cultural heritage of the population (Teo & Perono Cacciafoco, 2022; Zhang et al., 2020). Although the signs that prioritised English and Chinese represent dynamic linguistic choices and reflecting different roles and purposes, these signs still failed to fully comply with the stipulated language policy.

4.3.1.2 Font Size

Another important feature to consider in analysing multilingual signs is the font size preference. According to Scollon and Scollon (2003), the 'code preference system' is built based on the language hierarchy, taking into account critical characteristics such as the text placement and its font (including shape, colour, and size). Thus, this study also assessed font size preference across all survey sites to ensure adherence to the stipulated policy. Larger font sizes often indicate greater importance and visibility, showing the prevalence and preference of some languages over others on multilingual signs. For example, in some circumstances, English may be displayed in a bigger font than other languages to appeal to foreign visitors, emphasising its dominating status (Scollon & Scollon, 2003). Analysing this variable is critical in understanding how text on signs conforms with the stipulated policy and reflects actual practices in the selected survey areas. However, it is also important to consider on Backhaus' (2005) perspective

which states that "…the hierarchy of languages based on position can be cancelled by using different font sizes" (p.48). In other words, font size can override language placement, as seen in Figure 4.45.



Figure 4.45 Example of a Multilingual Sign with Font Size [Eng(1), BM(2)]

Figure 4.45 is an example of an advertisement sign believed to be issued by the state government in collaboration with the local tourism agency as part of the "Visit Perak" campaign initiative. It is noted that the font size for English is larger than the one for BM. Even though BM was placed on the first line or on top in a multilingual sign *("Selamat datang ke")*, it does not necessarily imply that a particular language is more prominent than the other language(s) in the text. The font size used for English is larger and bold *("Visit Perak – Yours to Discover")*, assuming that the target reader is meant for international tourists who may not be familiar with the national language. In this case, the font size surpasses the placement of the language in terms of hierarchy. Scollon and Scollon (2003) emphasised that when font size and placement do not depict equal inclination, font size should take precedence over text order or placement. Figure 4.45 is an example of this situation.

The sign exemplifies how government-authored sign in the tourist area may adopt pragmatic flexibility, balancing policy adherence with the need for accessibility in global tourism. However, the emphasis on English still contravenes the language policy that emphasises BM regardless of shape, colour, or size. It is also assumed that the variations were constructed to cater to various target audiences, which can be interpreted under the 'presumed reader' condition. As highlighted by Bruyel-Olmedo

and Juan-Garau (2015), language choice on signs reflects the perceived linguistics repertoire of intended audience. This claim is further supported by past studies which emphasise that sign creators strategically consider their target audience's linguistic competencies to ensure effective communication (Bretxa et al., 2016; Nurjaleka et al., 2025). Thus, the LL functions as a reflection of the assumed shared repertoire between sign creator and sign reader (McHenry, 2020). In the context of this study, English is used to accommodate presumed readers who are familiar with the language, while BM may be visually downplayed despite its official status. Nonetheless, it is crucial for all signs to adhere to the stipulated policy (refer to appendix 4, 5 and 7), taking into account the function of font size on all types of signs. Adhering to these regulations will help to maintain consistency and clarity in multilingual signs (Backhaus, 2007; Gorter, 2013; Rusdiansyah et al., 2025).



Figure 4.46 Example of a Multilingual Sign with Font Size
[Eng(1), BM(2), Chi(3)]

Figure 4.46 demonstrates an example of private sign that fails to follow the regulations in terms of placement, colour and font display. Based on the multilingual sign, the font size of 'NO TAILGATING' and 'GATE CLOSES AFTER EACH VEHICLE' is larger than the text in BM. In addition, the bold colour of the English text emphasises its prominence over BM. In contrast, Figure 4.14 which previously shown, display a sign where both BM and English texts are of equal font size. However, the text in BM 'SELAMAT DATANG' is given prominence in the advertisement due to its

bold, red colour, whereas English text 'WELCOMES YOU' is not bold and written in a lighter shade. This type of sign is considered as conforming to the regulations set in the stipulated language policy for outdoor advertisements. Table 4.8 shows the preferred languages based on font size.

Table 4.8
Font Size Preference in Multilingual Signs in the Survey Sites (n=314)

Font size/ sites	**P.Pangkor (n=207)**				**Lost World (n=83)**				**Teluk Batik (n=9)**			
	Gov		Pri		Gov		Pri		Gov		Pri	
No	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
BM(1) Eng (2)	38	83	61	38.1			10	10.5	4	66.7	5	71.4
BM(1) Chi(2)			23	14.4								
Tam(1) BM(2)	1	2.2										
Eng(1) BM(2)			22	13.8			9	9.5	1	16.7	1	14.3
Eng(1) Chi(2)			14	8.8			22	23.2			1	14.3
Eng(1) Arb(2)	1	2.2										
Eng(1) Lat(2)							5	5.3				
BM(1) Arb(2)									1	16.7		
BM(1) Fre(2)			1	0.6								
BM(1) Gr(2)			1	0.6								
Chi(1) BM(2)			2	1.3								
Chi(1) Eng(2)			3	1.9			3	3.2				
BM(1) Eng(2) Chi(3)			14	8.8								
BM(1) Chi(2) Eng(3)			8	5			3	3.2				
BM(1) Eng(2) Ita(3)			1	0.6								
Eng(1) BM(2) Chi(3)			1	0.6			8	8.4				
Eng(1) BM(2) Kor(3)							3	3.2				
Eng(1) Chi(2) BM(3)			1	0.6			4	4.2				
Eng(1) Chi(2) Arb(3)							12	12.6				
Chi(1) BM(2) Eng(3)							1	1.1				
Fre(1) Eng(2) BM(3)			1	0.6								
BM(1) Chi(2) Tam(3) Eng(4)	1	2.2	1	0.6								
Eng(1) Chi(2) Arb(3) BM(4)							1	1.1				
Eng(1) Chi(2) Arb(3) Lat(4)							7	7.4				
Equal size	5	10.9	6	3.8			7	7.4				
Total	**46**	100	**160**	100			**95**	100	**6**	100	**7**	100

*BM–Bahasa Malaysia/ Bahasa Melayu; Eng–English; Chi–Chinese; Tam–Tamil; Arb– Arabic; Fre–French; Gr–Greek; Ita–Italian; Kor–Korean; Lat–Latin

*(1) – language appearing on the first line; (2) – language appearing on the second line; (3) – language appearing on the third line; (4) language appearing on the fourth line

Table 4.8 presents the distribution of font size used on government and private multilingual signs in Pulau Pangkor, the Lost World of Tambun, and Teluk Batik. The first element analysed is the total number of signs that prioritise BM in terms of font size. It was observed that in two specific survey areas, Pulau Pangkor and Teluk Batik, a high frequency of government and private signs in the LL employed larger fonts for the national language. In Pulau Pangkor, 84.8% of government signs and 68.8% of private signs followed this trend, while in Teluk Batik, 83.3% of government signs and 71.4% of private signs prioritised BM (refer to Table 4.9). This shows that the sites adhere to the stipulated policy regarding language on signs, which indicates that precedence must be given to BM.

Table 4.9
Total Numbers of Signs that Prioritise BM in Terms of Font Size Utilisation (n=314)

Survey sites / authorship	**Government**		**Private**	
	No	%	No	%
Pulau Pangkor	39	84.8	110	68.8
Lost World of Tambun			13	13.7
Teluk Batik	5	83.3	5	71.4

However, the situation differs with private signs projected in the Lost of World of Tambun, where it was found that only 13.7% (see Table 4.9) of the private signs used larger font size for BM. The rest of the multilingual signs put up by the private sector in this area gave priority to other languages in terms of font size, especially English. This reflects inconsistencies between the policy and actual practice. It is clearly shown in Table 4.8 that English is the preferred language in terms of font size among sign creators from the private sectors. The preference for English was asked during the interview with the sign creators in the Lost World of Tambun. According to them, using English is much easier and simple as the text is not lengthy compared to other languages. LW2 explained that when creating signs, especially in places like theme parks, it is preferable for the text to be short and precise so that the information is clearly delivered. He also elaborated that aside from making the text easier to comprehend, English is more attractive compared to BM as this helps to capture wider target audience.

The local authorities also shared their views on why most sign creators, especially from the private sectors, prioritise English in tourist areas. The enforcement

officer (EO3) from MPM highlighted two main reasons for this preference. First, English is seen as more universal and easily understood by global audience. Second, the demographic factors that influence its use, with English being more commonly used in areas with diverse populations. This is evidenced in extract 1.

Extract 1

Researcher : *"Public signs in most tourist areas often prioritise English. What are your thoughts on this practice, and why do you think this happens?"*

MPM (EO3) : *"In my opinion, the main reason for this is of course to make it easier for tourists from various countries to understand what is being conveyed. Most of us noticed that tourist places do have a lot of promotional advertisements as well as regulatory signs that visitors need to adhere to. Moreover, sign creators mostly choose English because it is a simple language and widely recognised. Even the locals could speak fluent English. Another reason for this could also be due to the area itself. For instance, in areas with a predominantly Chinese or Indian population, we can see that English is also being used more frequently and this is to ensure better comprehension".*

EO1 from MBI also supported this response, noting that the preference for English is influenced by the area's demographics. He mentioned that in areas where English speakers predominate, the language tend to be preferred. He further stated that English has been widely spoken by many Malaysians, especially the non-Malays. Since English is the country's second language and known to be the international language, English has become the common and preferred language among the locals. EO2 further added that the practice of prioritising English has become the norm these days, possibly due to a lack of concern or, in some cases, simply disregard the mandatory use of BM. He further highlighted that this situation reflects the attitude of some sign creators or advertisers, who are not being considerate in prioritising the national language.

Another reasonable point highlighted by one of the sign creators in Pulau Pangkor (PP4), particularly in advertisements is due to the belief that BM is not the language with significant commercial appeal, as compared to English. A similar notion was reported in The Star on April 22, 2024, when Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka's Deputy Director-General (Policy), Md Johari Hasan also stated that some business owners prefer using other languages on signs not just to draw attention, but also because BM is

perceived as lacking economic value. PP4 further emphasised the importance of choosing the appropriate language preferred by the target market which not only for promotional purposes but also enhances the country's visibility and boost the local economy. However, all interviewed enforcement officers from the local city councils stressed that regardless of the reasons, the practice of prioritising other languages over BM in terms of font size, colour and placement should not be overlooked, as it violates the regulations stipulated in the language policy.

Therefore, based on the visual and interview data, it can be concluded that there were signs in the LL of the survey areas, particularly in the Lost World of Tambun, that failed to comply with the stipulated language policy in terms of font used, with most of these signs are from the private sectors. This finding is consistent with other LL studies that highlight gaps between policy and actual practice, particularly in private sectors signs (Anuarudin, 2017; Ayyub & Rohmah, 2024; Backhaus, 2007; Ben Said, 2010; Cenoz & Gorter, 2006; Firdausiyah & Suhandano, 2025; Kimambo & Mdukula, 2024). Table 4.8 also reveals the presence of signs that have equal font sizes for BM and other languages. It was found that 10.9% of the signs in Pulau Pangkor, 3.8% in Lost World of Tambun, and 7.4% in Teluk Batik displayed equal font size. In this case, the placement of the language in the text is still considered. An example of this situation is shown in Figure 4.47, where BM was placed on top of English which the sign was said to abide with the language policy. In contrast to Figure 4.47, sign in Figure 4.48 is deemed as non-compliant with the policy because even though the font size and colour used are of equal, the text in English seemed to be more prominent than BM in terms of placement.



Figure 4.47 Example of Informational Sign with the use of Equal Font Size [BM, Eng]



Figure 4.48 Example of Regulatory Sign with the use of Equal Font Size [Eng, BM, Chi]

Overall, it could be seen that the growing number of English signs as the preferred code, especially in private signs in terms of placement and font size is indeed something that needs to be acknowledged in the field of LL of tourist sites. Based on the preference model by Spolsky and Cooper (1991), English being the preferred code in the context of this study can be best explained by the 'presumed reader' condition as English is perceived to have economic value for businesses in the tourism industry. Zhang et al. (2020) further noted that English is often seen as modern, useful, and associated with greater economic opportunities by most sign creators. Nevertheless, public signs should not only display English, as the policy mandates the inclusion and prioritisation of BM in all circumstances. The enforcement officer (EO1) from MBI stated that sign creators or advertisers who fail to comply with the policy may face consequences, such as fines or removal of signs. He further elaborated that in some cases, there are sign creators and advertisers who are willing to take the risk or penalties since they noticed the power of English, especially as a tool for global business.

In contrast, signs that gave prominence to BM in terms of the font used or placement can be interpreted under the third condition since the use of national language serves as a symbolic value that makes the public associate their identity as being Malaysian. This is, in fact, also the case for the symbolic use of BM in other places (Anuarudin, 2017; Beh, 2017; Jiao & Singh, 2024; Manan et al., 2015). Moreover, the preference for BM could also be due to the requirements set by the relevant authorities or known as the 'required code'. As for this study, the findings demonstrate that most

signs in the survey sites, specifically Pulau Pangkor and Teluk Batik, adhered to the stipulated policy where placement and font size are concern, even despite being part of the tourism industry.

It is also important to note that the high prevalence of BM appearing in the first position on multilingual signs does not in itself confirm genuine policy compliance by sign creators. For government authored signs, BM prominence in both placement and font size is a direct consequence of the Local Council by-law requirements and can therefore be understood as BM functioning as a required code — its visual dominance is mandated rather than chosen. For private authored signs, however, the trend is considerably more nuanced. Where BM appears prominently on private signs, particularly at Pulau Pangkor and Teluk Batik, this may reflect either compliance with policy requirements or genuine preference for BM as the most effective language for communicating with other domestic visitor at these sites. The interview data from sign creators at Pulau Pangkor (PP1–PP7) and Teluk Batik (TB1–TB3) are particularly illuminating in this regard, as several creators confirmed that they placed BM prominently not merely because it was required but because they believed it represents their identity and considered the most effective language for their primary customer. This finding supports the required versus preferred code distinction introduced in Section 2.6.4, which draws upon and extends Spolsky and Cooper's (1991) preference model to differentiate between BM appearing on signs due to regulatory obligation and BM appearing due to genuine preference.

At Lost World of Tambun, by contrast, the font size and placement data reveal a different pattern. English consistently appeared in the first position and in the largest font size across the majority of private multilingual signs at this site, with BM either absent or placed in a subordinate position. This reflects the Sunway Group's corporate branding strategy, which prioritises English as the main language of communication in the theme park. In this context, BM appears to function neither as a required nor as a preferred code but rather as a token inclusion to minimise regulatory risk. This is consistent with Shohamy's (2006) argument that language policies may not always be genuinely internalised by those responsible for sign production, as evidenced by the significant gap between the policy requirement and the actual practices observed at this site. These findings are further examined in relation to the adherence of stipulated language policy in Section 4.4.

4.3.2 Text Composition

Another element analysed in addressing RQ2 is the text composition which focuses on the presence of translation. As mentioned in the previous chapter, this study utilised Anuarudin's (2017) types of text composition, which was developed from Reh's (2004) typology of multilingual writing and Backhaus's (2005) composition type, to investigate the three main types of text composition: mutual translation, partial translation, and harmonised translation (see Table 3.3). By identifying and categorising these linguistic features, the study aims to gain a better understanding of the multilingual practices in the survey tourist sites and assess the degree of compliance with the stipulated policy. This understanding is crucial in a multilingual country like Malaysia, as it contributes significantly to the broader understanding of how translation shapes and influences LL in diverse cultural and linguistic contexts (Anuarudin, 2017; Napu, 2024). Table 4.10 presents the quantitative distribution of the text composition in the selected tourist sites, followed by a discussion for each type.

Table 4.10
Distribution of the Types of Text Composition in Survey Tourist Sites (n=314)

Sites	Translation type / Signs	Mutual		Partial		Harmonised	
		No	%	No	%	No	%
Pulau Pangkor (n=206)	Government	33	15.7	6	13.2	7	19.4
	Private	97	46.2	39	57.4	24	66.7
Lost World of Tambun (n=95)	Government						
	Private	71	33.8	19	27.9	5	13.9
Teluk Batik (n=13)	Government	5	2.4	1	1.5		
	Private	4	1.9	3	4.4		
Total	**Government**	38	18	7	10.3	7	19.4
	Private	172	82	61	89.7	29	80.6
	Total	**210**	**100**	**68**	**100**	**36**	**100**

4.3.2.1 Mutual Translation

As explained in Chapter 3, mutual translation signs present complete translations of text in more than one language. Reh (as cited in Anuarudin, 2017) refers this practice as 'duplicating' in the context of multilingual texts. The presence of this

practice reflects what Reh (2004) describes as ‘societal multilingualism’, where multiple languages coexist within a community (p.8). This type of text composition resembles the multilingual nature of Malaysian society, which is reflected in the diverse range of languages used in public displays. Such diversity offers valuable insights into how public spaces accommodate cultural diversity which could arise from both technical and affective aspects of communication (Coluzzi, 2017; Manan et al., 2015). Mutual translation is believed to be useful, as not everyone in a multilingual society can be effectively reached using a single language. As noted by Napu (2024), mutual translation is commonly practiced in tourism, serving as a ‘bridge’ to convey meaning to those unfamiliar with the local language. An example of a mutual translation sign is shown in Figure 4.49, where the text in the national language, BM, is fully translated into English, with both versions conveying the same meaning. This ensures accessibility for individuals who have the linguistic and cultural familiarity with BM. An example of mutual translation is shown in Figure 4.49, where the text in the national language, BM, is fully translated into English, with both versions delivering the same message. This ensures accessibility for individuals who may not have the linguistic or cultural knowledge of BM.



Figure 4.49 Example of Sign with Mutual Translation

Based on the data presented in Table 4.10, a significant number of signs constructed in the survey areas were created using mutual translation, with 18% from the government signs and 82% from the private signs. These findings align with Djonda

and Madrunio's (2023) touristic LL study in Labuan Bajo, Indonesia, which highlights that mutual signs are more effective in addressing the linguistic needs of tourists. This occurrence could also be due to the multiracial society exist in Malaysia that acknowledges Reh's (2004) concept of societal multilingualism. It is quite common to find signs with mutual translation in public spaces, particularly in tourist areas which support most of LL studies in relation to tourism (Kallen, 2009; Lu et al., 2020; Moriarty, 2015; Sartik, Saleh & Jamaludin, 2020; Torkington, 2014; Wang, 2015).

Most of the signs featuring mutual translation in this study involved translation between BM and English. This is expected as BM is the national and official language of Malaysia, while English serves as the country's second language. Both of these languages are widely spoken and understood by the population. This preference for BM and English in multilingual signs was also confirmed by most sign creators in the survey sites during the interview. They explained that the reason for choosing these two languages for translation is because they are commonly used and understood by the Malaysian public, making them effective for communication and outreach in both local and tourist areas.

Another reason for the prominence of mutual translation between BM and English is due to English being known as a symbol of internalisation, westernisation, modernisation, success, sophistication, and attractiveness (Cenoz & Gorter, 2008; Lai, 2007; Manan et al., 2015; Piller, 2001). In discussing the role of English in the LL of Malaysia, it is important to acknowledge its status as a global language. This preference is particularly evident in most tourist areas. For instance, studies conducted by Mansoor et al. (2023) and Beh (2017) found that the use of English in public signs reflect its importance as a widely understood lingua franca. These findings support the notion that English is a key language for attracting a diverse audience, which also acknowledged by most sign creators in the survey sites. The translation from or into English also helps sign creators achieve their primary goal of putting up their signs, in which to sell or inform the public regarding their products or services. The enforcement officers from the local city councils agreed that the trend of using mutual translation signs between BM and English is common in most tourist sites as it is part of their marketing strategies to capture a larger audience and interest in reading the signs. Hence, it is evident that mutual translation provides benefits for both sign creators and target audience.

Aside from the mutual translation of BM and English, Chinese language also frequently appears on signs. An example of this can be seen in Figure 4.47. This finding aligns with previous studies that identify BM, English and Chinese as the common languages used on multilingual signs in Malaysia (Anuarudin, 2017; Beh, 2017; Colluzi, 2012; Jiao & Singh, 2024; Manan et al., 2015; Mansoor et al., 2023). Although the number of mutual translation signs featuring Chinese is fewer compared to those in English, their presence holds significant value. The presence of Chinese on signs is likely due to the fact that Chinese community is the second largest community in Malaysia, comprising 22.6% of the population, according to the Department of Statistics Malaysia as of 2024. Moreover, it is also discovered by Manan et al. (2015) that Mandarin is the third language commonly used on multilingual signs. Therefore, the inclusion of Chinese on signs highlights the recognition of the Chinese community as a significant linguistic and cultural group within Malaysia.

Apart from that, the inclusion of Chinese on signs also serves as an identity marker and as a mean of cultural connection, as confirmed by the enforcement officer (EO1) from MPM. One of the sign creators in the Lost World of Tambun (LW2) elaborated further that the inclusion of Chinese in the area is closely related to the historical significance of the Chinese community, particularly their involvement in the tin mining industry. The history is shared and somehow portrayed in signs which helps to connect the historical presence of the Chinese community, creating welcoming and familiar environment. Moreover, the private sectors also recognise the importance of Chinese language as an effective way to attract potential customers who recognise the language. Interviews with sign creators in the survey areas mostly reported that the use of Chinese language serves as a commercial role, attracting the Chinese customers and visitors. This is also because Chinese is known to have a strong economic status, as highlighted by Colluzi (2012), and is considered a newly emerging foreign language in economic context (Dong et al., 2020). This indicates that the choice is not merely a linguistic preference but also a strategic decision to engage a key market segment. This trend is noticeable in some parts of the survey areas of Pulau Pangkor and in the Lost World of Tambun. According to sign creator in Pulau Pangkor (PP7):

"*By including the Chinese language, these signs can be easily accessed by any Chinese-speaking individuals. For me, it is more appealing when you have your own language written. This would definitely help to attract and retain Chinese-speaking customers".*

This elaboration highlights the strategic reasons for incorporating Chinese language in mutual translation signs within the survey areas. The presence of mutual translation text, particularly those featuring Mandarin, reflects the recognition of the Chinese community as a key target market in the advertising industry, especially by the private sector. The use of Chinese in public signs not only underscores the economic and cultural significance of the Chinese community but also highlights the role of private sectors in catering to this group through targeted communication strategies. This demonstrates the broader impact of language diversity on public tourist spaces in Malaysia. Although Chinese language does not enjoy the same privileges as compared to what BM and English language are entitled, it still remains an important component of Malaysia's LL.

4.3.2.2 Partial Translation

As revealed in Table 3.3 in Chapter 3, the 'partial translation' type of text composition is used to identify some part of the text that is translated to another language or languages employed in the text displayed. Based on Reh's text composition, this type of text is based on a combination of 'fragmentary' and 'overlapping' (as cited in Anuarudin, 2017). In other words, not all the words in the texts are translated into other languages as in mutual translation text composition. An example of a partial translation sign is shown in Figure 4.49. Based on the distribution of data (see Table 4.10), partial translation signs in this study constitute the second highest number of signs in all survey areas with 68 out of 314 multilingual signs. It was also found that the partial translation was employed in a significant number of signs, especially within the private sectors with 61 signs (89.7%) in comparison to government signs with only 7 signs (10.3%).



Figure 4.50 Example of an Advertisement Sign with Partial Translation Text Composition

Figure 4.50 illustrates a partial translation advertisement from a private business. The first three lines of the advertisement are not translated, while the central English text is accompanied by translations in BM and Chinese. This exemplifies a partial translation sign as only some parts of the text are translated into another language or other languages. This practice reveals a strategic communicative approach employed by the private entity as the advertisement selectively translates key information from English to BM and Chinese, leaving the rest untranslated. Such selective approach for multilingual texts corroborates with findings by Teo and Perono Cacciafoco (2022) and Ong and Ben Said (2022), who observed that private signs often translate only the most relevant or commercially impactful information that is familiar to the intended readers. In other words, partial translation allows for targeted communication which highlight crucial information such as product names, services, special offers, or essential instructions. This approach serves the informational role of the sign as it is constructed mainly to facilitate effective communication with the intended readers. In the case of Figure 4.50, the crucial information is the availability of the bathroom services offered by the restaurant. Therefore, it is reasonable to argue that the partial translated texts seem to be necessarily used to emphasise the importance of the message, which is considered crucial for both locals and other relevant target audiences.

The sign creators were asked about the rationale of using partial translation on signs and they generally concurred that it provides practicality, especially in a multilingual context. One of the sign creators (TB1) mentioned:

"Sometimes, it may not be practical to translate every single detail into all possible languages. Most Malaysians, they are quite proficient in other languages besides their mother tongue. As long as the main message is clear and can be read by diverse people, it is good enough already".

This perspective highlights a valid reason, given Malaysia's diverse linguistic environment. Translating every single detail into all possible languages may not be feasible. The presence of different languages in partial translations already represents the dynamic LL of the area while maintaining clarity and accessibility. As Backhaus (2007) emphasised, the LL is not static but evolves in response to social functions and readers' expectations. Sinaga, Setia, and Hanafiah (2020) further claimed that the use of partial multilingual signs helps to embody dynamic language interaction and sociocultural negotiation in public space. From the responses, it could also be deduced that sign creators assume readers were able to understand the languages displayed on the signs created. This could be best explained under the category of the 'presumed reader' condition because the sign creators chose languages, they presumed their target readers would be able to understand.

Another possible condition is the 'sign writer skills', where sign creators write texts in languages they are proficient in. Sign creators may opt for partial translations using the languages they are most comfortable with to ensure that the key information is delivered effectively. In the context of this study, sign creators in the survey areas mostly assume that readers are proficient in BM and English, and in some cases Chinese. These languages are the languages that most Malaysians commonly use in their everyday encounter. This is aimed to cater to different audience as well as engagement without overwhelming the signs with mutual translation.

The sign creators also admitted that they would prefer their signs to be short and precise due to the cost and space constraints. Most of them agreed that mutual translation is space-consuming, making partial translation a practical choice for them. This is also relevant especially in tourist areas, where maximizing space without overcrowding the message is vital. According to three of the interviewed sign creators, the choice of partial translation depends on the information they want to convey, and the type of sign used. However, five respondents who still disagreed as they prefer to have mutual translation signs in order to catch a wider audience. Other reasons

highlighted by one of the sign creators, (PP5), for using partial translations are due to the regulatory compliance and marketing strategies. According to her, partial translation is often employed to adhere to the stipulated language policy. In the context of Malaysia, BM is mandated to be on any signs. Due to this, the presence of BM is required, while additional languages may be included just to tap the readers' interest for marketing purposes. He elucidated that signs displaying BM along with other languages on partial translation can be seen as a safer option and that could also be a strong reason of why some choose to have partial translation on sign.

These reasons discussed highlight that partial translation in text composition is not just a matter of linguistic choice, but a strategic decision employed by sign creators in shaping the LL of the survey tourist areas. Recent LL studies have emphasised that this strategy adopted by sign creators to balance the landscape in order to achieve communicative clarity, target audience, and design constraints. For instance, Phanthaphoommee and Gu (2024) found that sign makers in Thailand tourist areas often translate only the most important or commercially relevant information to keep the signs clear and easy to understand for a wider audience. Similarly, Alomoush (2023), in his study of the LL in Jerash Jordon, refer to this approach as fragmentary multilingual writing, which is commonly applied in multilingual contexts where full translation is not necessarily required for effective communication.

4.3.2.3 Harmonised Composition

The next category analysed is known as 'harmonised composition', adapted from Anuarudin's framework (termed 'complementary' by Reh, 2004), which examines the presence of signs containing at least two languages where the information is complementary rather than indicating mutual or partial translation. In other words, harmonised composition does not involve any form of translation, instead the phrasing in the text is complementary or in harmony with one another. An example of harmonised composition is represented in Figure 4.51.



Figure 4.51 Example of a Sign with Harmonised Composition

Referring to Table 4.10, it is apparent that harmonised composition signs accounted for only 36 (11.5%) out of a total of 314 signs, which is the lowest compared to other text compositions. Out of these 36 harmonised composition signs, 7 (19.4%) were from government and 29 (80.6%) were from private sectors. This suggests that harmonised text composition was not widely preferred in the survey areas. They appear to be utilised strategically in context where readers are expected to be familiar with the text or messages. Although harmonised signs were limited in number, their existence still shows that sign creators recognise and acknowledge the multilingual nature of the area. In other words, sign creators are aware of the diverse languages spoken in the tourist sites and have made effort to address this diversity, even if the harmonised signs are not commonly used.

Compared to other text compositions discussed, harmonised composition signs provide a unique blend of languages. Based on the surveyed LL, most of the harmonised signs incorporated BM and English, as illustrated in Figure 4.51. The first line of the message features the word ‘aktiviti’, which translates to ‘activity’ in English. The remaining words, such as ‘boat trip’, ‘snorkling’ (misspelled), ‘fishing trip’, ‘jet ski’ and ‘banana boat’ were written in English. These words were not translations of the initial word but were written in complementary manner that harmonised with the rest of the text. This type of harmonised composition is easy to understand since the BM word ‘aktiviti’ sounds similar to the English word. In this case, readers can infer that

the rest of the remaining texts relate to the activities offered by the services mentioned. Notably, this indicates that readers do not necessarily need bilingual competence, as opposed to Reh's (2004) assertion that harmonised signs require fluency in all involved languages to fully understand the entire message. Furthermore, as Anuarudin (2017) mentioned, readers who are not familiar with the written texts can also infer the meaning with the help of visuals. This, in turn, addresses the purpose of having harmonised text composition, as some text can be fully understood by readers without fluency in either language, aided by visuals elements.

EO2 explained that another key reason for the use of harmonised composition signs by most private sectors is to introduce variety in the types of signs used. She emphasised that private entities and advertisers often seek diverse approaches to ensure their signage stand out and attract attention. By using harmonised signs, which combine multiple languages without direct translation, businesses can create a unique visual and linguistic appeal. He further mentioned that the variety not only adds creativity to the signs but also caters to different audiences, ensuring that the signs are engaging and accessible to both local and international viewers. The harmonised text composition in the survey sites was mainly found in most advertisement and commercial signs that usually showcase the name of a place, building, shop signs, as well as products and services. English words were employed not only for the benefit of foreign tourists but also for the local people who are familiar with the language. English enjoys a special status in Malaysia and is considered the second most important language after BM (Azman, Chik, & Bodis, 2024). Hence, it is norm to find harmonised signs with the inclusion of English in Malaysia's LL.

As previously mentioned, English serves as the main medium in private sectors, including business and industry. According to Napu (2024), advertisers and business proprietors often use specific languages in advertisements or store signs to associate particular products or services with the appropriate target market. In Malaysia, English is commonly used due to its status as a global language and business lingua franca which has been addressed in previous studies (Anuarudin, 2017; Asmah, 1996; Beh, 2017; Manan et al., 2015; Pillai, 2021; Woo & Riget, 2020). The enforcement officer (EO1) from MBI agreed that English has distinct advantages, especially in tourist areas where businesses aim to promote their products and services. This is why many advertisers, and business proprietors prefer to include English in their signs as part of their business

strategy. A study by Artawa et al. (2023) further supports this, showing that English is often paired with local languages on restaurant and retail signs to attract tourists and signal modernity. This practice attracts a particular audience, making the signs more appealing to both local and international visitors. As supported by most LL researchers, English is strategically used in tourist spaces to enhance visibility, broaden market reach, and increase perceived prestige (Fauzia et al., 2024; Teo & Perono Cacciafoco, 2022). EO1 further emphasised that leveraging the use of English on signs is acceptable, as long as the language is used alongside BM and ensure that BM is not overshadowed in terms of font size, colour or position.

The findings also indicated that the use of harmonised text composition in the survey sites can also be categorised under the conditions of the 'sign-writer's skill' and the 'presumed reader'. This aligns with Anuarudin's (2017) findings in her LL study of billboard advertisements in Klang Valley, Malaysia where harmonised composition signs mostly derived from these two main conditions. She reported that the harmonised composition could be influenced by 'sign-writer's skill' due to the use of languages that the sign creators are proficient in, which in this case are BM and English. This condition was also evident in the LL of the survey tourist sites.

Another condition that significantly influenced the use of harmonised text is the 'presumed reader' condition. This condition reflects the assumption made by sign creators that their intended readers can understand the languages used on signs. Interviews conducted with sign creators revealed that many shared the rationale for using BM and English based on the belief that their target audience – both local and international visitors are generally proficient in these languages. This aligns with the expectation that BM, as the national language, is understood by all Malaysians, while English, being the second language, holds a crucial role in communication, particularly in tourist areas. Most sign creators believed that English words used in harmonised composition can cater to foreign tourists or visitors, providing an added benefit of leveraging accessibility and engagement from multilingual audience. Similarly, Jiao and Singh (2024) believed that the integration of English in multilingual signs, especially in tourist spaces, increases the communicative reach and economic appeal of the signs by catering to the global tourism market and symbolizing internationalization. While the presence of other languages such as Chinese, Tamil, and foreign languages was relatively limited in the survey sites, their inclusion nonetheless highlights the sign

creators' intention to connect with a wider audience, encompassing both locals and tourists. This occasional use of additional languages still contributes to reflecting Malaysia's diverse LL, ensuring that a broad spectrum of readers can understand and engage with the signs.

4.3.3 RQ2: Linguistic Features- Conclusion

RQ2 focused on identifying the linguistic features present on signs within the LL of the survey tourist areas. The analysis for RQ2 centred on the code preference and the types of text compositions featured on the signs. The discussion began with an analysis of code preference, where the variables of placement and font size were individually analysed and explored.

The analysis of text placement and font size reveals a distinct pattern of language prioritisation that adheres to the stipulated language policy. BM was clearly prioritised in both placement and font size, particularly in Pulau Pangkor and Teluk Batik, emphasising its status as the official language and preferred language. This trend is supported by previous LL studies: Zhang (2024) confirms BM is the major language in the LL of University Malaya in Kuala Lumpur; and Woo and Riget (2020) similarly noted its prioritisation in Kuala Lumpur International Airport, reflecting the stronger enforcement of national language policy. These findings collectively affirm the concept of 'language saliency' highlighted by Landry and Bourhis (1997), which states that a language's prominence on signs reflects its symbolic and societal importance.

Findings from the code preference analysis also reveal a hierarchical structure in language use across the survey tourist areas. As Scollon and Scollon (2003) pointed out, font size often takes precedence over placement in determining language prominence, particularly when noticeable size differences are present. In this study, English appeared in larger fonts on some signs, signalling its prominence despite BM being positioned first. The occasional visual dominance of English in either font size or placement, particularly in tourism contexts, signifies its growing functional importance in public spaces. Ong and Ben Said (2022) also observed a similar trend in the LL of Penang, Malaysia, where in many cases BM appears on top and English is often displayed in a noticeably larger font, revealing a complex interplay between symbolic function (BM) and communicative function (English).

The complexity of determining language prominence based on either text placement or font size indeed remains a challenge and may lead to confusion, as raised by Anuarudin (2017). As Alamoush (2023) argues, language hierarchy on signs often emerges from a combination of factors, including spatial constraints, semiotic appeal, and intended audience. Therefore, language placement and font size should be viewed as complementary rather than competing elements when determining language prominence. It is important to recognise that neither variable is inherently more significant than the other. Instead, both placement and font size play distinct yet interconnected roles in how signs display language and conform to language policy requirements.

Based on the findings of code preference in this study, the prominence given to BM, whether through placement or font size, appears to serve a dual function: it reflects the symbolic representation of national identity and demonstrates compliance with the national language policy. BM therefore functions as both a 'required code', fulfilling mandatory policy obligations under the National Language Act and Local Council by-laws, and as a 'preferred code', reflecting genuine preferences by individuals or community beyond what policy strictly requires. Critically, distinguishing between these two functions is not always straightforward from visual data alone. Evidence from the semi-structured interviews with sign creators and enforcement officers was therefore essential in clarifying this distinction. Several sign creators in Pulau Pangkor and Teluk Batik indicated that their use of BM reflects genuine community identification and customer preference, suggesting a 'preferred code' orientation. In contrast, enforcement officers confirmed that BM placement and font size requirements are non-negotiable regulatory requirements, suggesting that in many cases, particularly for commercially driven private signs, the prominence of BM reflects compliance with a 'required code' rather than voluntary preference. This distinction reveals that the apparent consistency of BM prioritisation across the survey sites reveals a more complex and varied set of motivations underlying the construction of signs in Malaysian tourist spaces.

The second aspect addressed in RQ2 was text composition. The LL of the tourist sites, notably Pulau Pangkor, Lost World of Tambun, and Teluk Batik, reveals a diverse range of text compositions. Most of the signs displayed mutual composition, with 210 out of 314 signs (66.9%), followed by partial composition at 21.7%, and harmonised

composition with at 11.5%. The findings suggest that translation practices on public signs in Malaysian tourist sites are becoming more common, where language variety is regarded as a significant component of the LL. These findings reflect an increasing awareness of multilingual representation in tourist spaces. LL studies by Fauzia et al. (2024) and Teo and Perono Cacciafoco (2022) have observed similar trends, where multilingual compositions are crafted to serve both communicative and symbolic purposes. Although the findings of text composition reveal distinct patterns, it is important to note that the underlying motives or intentions for these choices remain complex and potentially varied. This is due to the various factors that may influence the selection of a particular text composition such as individual or agencies preferences, marketing strategies, space and budget constraints, target readers, or other contextual variables (Sari, 2019; Teo & Perono Cacciafoco, 2022).

The findings from both code preference and text composition analysis reflect the evolving sociolinguistic trends in the LL of Malaysian tourist sites. It also demonstrates how the LL of the survey sites complements national language policy while simultaneously fulfilling practical communication needs, particularly in tourist-centric areas. However, given the complexity and variability of factors influencing textual choices, the present findings cannot be conclusively generalised to represent the motives behind individual text selection for all tourist sites in Malaysia; in some regions or sites, harmonised composition might emerge as the dominant form. The findings from RQ2 thus demonstrate that the linguistic features of tourist signs in Perak are not neutral representations of language use but are actively shaped by the intersection of regulatory requirements, commercial priorities, and local identity. This reflects the dynamic that Trumper-Hecht (2010) identifies as central to understanding the sociolinguistic-spatial dimensions of any LL.

4.4 RQ3: The Consistency between Actual Practice and Stipulated Language Policies Pertaining to the LL of Selected Tourist Sites in Perak

The third research question (RQ3) of this study is aimed at investigating the relation and consistency between the stipulated language policies for outdoor advertisements and actual practice of the linguistic landscapes in the selected tourist sites. In addressing this research question, three different sets of data were triangulated:

policy documents, visual/LL data, and semi-structured interviews. As explained in Chapter 3, semi-structured interviews were conducted with two groups: local authorities and sign creators. For the local authorities, interviews were conducted with the enforcement officers from MBI (Ipoh City Council; EO1 and EO2) and MPM (Manjung Municipal Council; EO3).

As for sign creators, semi-structured interviews were conducted with thirteen sign creators (PP1, PP2, PP3, PP4, PP5, PP6, PP7, LW1, LW2, LW3, TB1, TB2, TB3) from the survey tourist sites to gain in-depth information about the creation of signs, particularly on the reasons for creation as well as their awareness on the stipulated policy documents. The interviews with these two groups provided further insights pertaining to the consistencies between policy and actual practice. The first part (Section 4.4.1) begins with a review and discussion on outdoor sign policies retrieved from the official websites of MBI and MPM and supplemented by interview data with the local authorities. The second part (Section 4.4.2) presents the findings and discussion on the consistencies between stipulated policies and actual practice, integrating evidence from policy documents, visual LL data from the survey sites, and interviews with both enforcement officers and sign creators.

4.4.1 Policy Documents on Outdoor Advertisements

As mentioned in Chapter 3, the policy documents pertaining to language policy and advertisement laws were retrieved from two main sources: (1) the official websites of Ipoh City Council (Majlis Bandaraya Ipoh, MBI) and Manjung Municipal Council (Majlis Perbandaran Manjung, MPM); (2) the enforcement officers representing both councils. The documents obtained are listed below:

i. Verification Procedures of National Language in Advertising (Tatacara Pengesahan Bahasa Dalam Iklan) (Appendix 4)
ii. Advertisement (Ipoh City Council) By-Laws 2013 [Undang-Undang Kecil Iklan (Majlis Bandaraya Ipoh) 2013] (Appendix 5)

iii. Advertisement (Ipoh City Council) (Amendment) By-Laws 2016 [Undang-Undang Kecil Iklan (Majlis Bandaraya Ipoh) (Pindaan) 2016] (Appendix 6)
iv. Advertisement (Manjung Municipal Council) By-Laws 2013 [Undang-Undang Kecil Iklan (Majlis Perbandaran Manjung) 2013] (Appendix 7)
v. Advertisement (Manjung Municipal Council) (Amendment) By-Laws 2017 [Undang-Undang Kecil Iklan (Majlis Perbandaran Manjung) (Pindaan) 2017] (Appendix 8)
vi. Guidelines for Putting Up Outdoor Advertisement (Department of Town and Country Planning Peninsular Malaysia) (Appendix 9)
vii. Guidelines for Putting Up Business Premises Signboard (Department of Town and Country Planning Peninsular Malaysia) (Appendix 10)
viii. Business License and Outdoor Signboard Application Procedure (Ipoh City Council) (Appendix 11)
ix. Business License and Outdoor Signboard Application Procedure (Manjung Municipal Council) (Appendix 12)

To fully comprehend the language policy governing outdoor advertisements in the assessed LL, it is crucial to analyse the relevant policy documents. These documents outline the official regulations and guidelines governing the use of language(s) in public signs, specifically on advertisement signs. Advertisements as stated in the policies above refer to:

> … any posters, signboard, directive, intimation or publication exhibited for the purpose of bringing to the notice of the public any articles, product, production, trade, business, profession, firm, corporation, organisation, institution, place, premises, event, activity or any other matter or information on any hoarding, board, billboard, banner, roof, wall, paling, fence, tree, frame, plate, cloth, bar, pillar, post, wire, casing, vehicle, electronic board, hologram, unipole tower, or by using laser beam or any other structure or contrivance, or any other part thereof on, in or over any building, street, public space, or over any land and includes sky-sign, balloon or banner, but does not include an election advertisement.

[cited in Advertisement (Ipoh City Council) By-Laws 2013 and Advertisement (Manjung Municipal Council) By-Laws 2013].

In this study, specific policy documents were analysed to determine the guidelines and expectations for language use on outdoor signs. These documents not only reveal the specified languages to be used but also explain how the languages should be portrayed on signs and the repercussions of failing to follow these rules. The findings from these documents are significant as they establish a regulatory framework that influence the construction of LL discovered in the investigated tourist areas. The main source of regulations is outlined in the 'Verification Procedures of National Language in Advertisements' (Tatacara Pengesahan Bahasa Kebangsaan dalam Iklan) issued by Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka (DBP). Table 4.11 presents the translated version of these regulations from BM to English, providing clear insight into the expectations set forth for advertisers and sign creators.

Table 4.11
Verification Procedures of National Language in Advertisement by DBP

6.10	Advertisements features
6.11	Abide by the guidelines stated in the Advertisement by-law.
6.12	The advertisements must abide by the related Act and regulations such as the Advertisement by-law (Federal Territory) 1982 as stated in the Local Council Act 1976 as follows:
	(1) An advertisement has to be in Bahasa Melayu on its own or with other language(s) (PU (A) 364/85).
	(2) Words and alphabets in Bahasa Melayu must be given the priority in terms of colour and must be in clearer position than the words or alphabets or writings in other languages used and its size must not be bigger than the ones in Bahasa Melayu (PU (A) 364/85).
	(3) Any individual is not to display or cause or allow any advertisement that does not abide by paragraphs (1) and (2) (PU (A) 187/82).
	(4) Notwithstanding the provisions paragraph (3), if the name of any firm, society or company as registered under the Business Registration Act 1956, Company Act 1965 or Societies Act 1966, is or includes any wordings that is not in Bahasa Melayu, the wordings need not be translated to Bahasa Melayu (PU (A) 187/82).
	Notwithstanding the provisions in paragraph (4), the mayor may ask for the details of a business, companies or associations to abide by the provisions in paragraphs (1) and (2) (PU (A) 364/85).

The regulations of outdoor advertisements in Malaysia are generally supervised by DBP and local city councils or municipal councils (in this research context, it refers to MBI and MPM). DBP is responsible for ensuring that the national language is prominently and appropriately represented in public signs. Meanwhile, local councils are responsible for enforcing these guidelines within their respective areas. Their collaborative efforts ensure that language use in public spaces complies with the language policy. The Verification Procedures of National Language in Advertisement issued by DBP set forth guidelines pertaining to language requirements for outdoor advertisements. These regulations are also in line with those stated in the local city council's documents as well as municipal's regulations and guidelines. Table 4.12 illustrates examples of these policies and regulations derived from the documents of MBI and MPM (for a full version of these policies and regulations, please refer to the Appendices 3 and 5).

Table 4.12
Language Policy Documents from Ipoh City Council (MBI) and Manjung Municipal Council (MPM) on Guidelines and Regulations for Outdoor Advertisements.

Advertisement (Ipoh City Council) By-Laws 2013	**Advertisement (Manjung Municipal Council) By-Laws 2013**
Language of advertisements	***Language of advertisements***
3.(1) Every advertisement shall be in the National Language whether solely in the National Language or together with any other language.	3.(1) Every advertisement shall be in the National Language whether solely in the National Language or together with any other language.
(2) The words and letters in the National Language shall be given prominence in its colour and at position which more clearer than other words or letters or writings in other languages that can be used and its size should not exceeding the measurement of those in the National Language.	(2) The words and letters in the National Language shall be given prominence in its colour and at position which more clearer than other words or letters or writings in other languages that can be used and its size should not exceeding the measurement of those in the National Language.
(3) Council may add, amend, or revoke any word to National Language in order to displays the advertisement by explaining any type and business activity which was prescribed.	(3) Council may add, amend, or revoke any word to National Language in order to displays the advertisement by explaining any type and business activity which was prescribed.
(4) Any person shall not exhibit, erect or cause to be exhibited or erected any advertisement that does not comply with paragraph (1) and (2).	(4) Any person shall not exhibit, erect or cause to be exhibited or erected any advertisement that does not comply with paragraph (1) and (2).
(5) Notwithstanding paragraph (4), if the name of a firm, corporation, company,	(5) Notwithstanding paragraph (4), if the name of a firm, corporation, company, society or any other organization as

society or any other organization as registered under the Registration of Business Act 1956, Companies Act 1965, Societies Act 1966 or Co-operative Societies Act 1993 does not comprise of or include words that are in the national language, it may not be necessary to render the words into the National Language.	registered under the Registration of Business Act 1956, Companies Act 1965, Societies Act 1966 or Co-operative Societies Act 1993 does not comprise of or include words that are in the national language, it may not be necessary to render the words into the National Language.
Correct use of the national language	***Correct use of the national language***
4.(1) If it appears to the Council that the National Language has not been used correctly in any advertisement, the Council may, by notice in writing, order the person who has exhibited or erected the advertisement or who has caused or permit the advertisement to be exhibited or erected, to alter the advertisement so as to correct the error in such manner and within such time as the Council may specify in the notice.	4.(1) If it appears to the Council that the National Language has not been used correctly in any advertisement, the Council may, by notice in writing, order the person who has exhibited or erected the advertisement or who has caused or permit the advertisement to be exhibited or erected, to alter the advertisement so as to correct the error in such manner and within such time as the Council may specify in the notice.
(2) Any person who fails to comply with the notice issued by the Council shall be guilty of an offence.	(2) Any person who fails to comply with the notice issued by the Council shall be guilty of an offence.

As provided in Table 4.12, the regulations obtained from MBI and MPM demonstrate that the policies and regulations issued by these local authorities are in line with Verification Procedures of National Language in Advertising, issued by DBP. Based on the regulated policies, BM must be shown as the prominent language, regardless of its font size, colour, and position. These requirements apply to all types of signs, and failure to comply may result in penalties or removal of the signs by local authorities. To acquire a better understanding of the language policy for outdoor advertisement, semi-structured interviews were conducted with representatives from selected local authorities such as MBI and MPM.

During the interview sessions, all enforcement officers constantly emphasised the importance of conforming to the national language policies outlined by DBP. They explained that whenever signs are displayed, BM must be prominently featured in all outdoor advertisements, regardless of the type of public signs. They strictly confirmed that BM must be used in prominence, either in terms of placement as well as font size and colour. The enforcement officers further highlighted their commitment to abide

with DBP guidelines, which clearly state that the national language should not be overshadowed by other languages in any circumstances. EO1 from MBI clarified that all guidelines stated in the Verification Procedures of National Language in Advertising published by DBP was set in accordance with the National Language Act 1963/67 National Language Act (Amendment) 1971, and National Language Act (Amendment) 1970, which were introduced to uphold the status of BM and to promote the usage of BM as the national language.

The enforcement officers were also asked on whether or not giving prominence to BM on public signs would promote its usage. All of them agreed on its positive impact which they emphasised that advertisement is an effective channel for elevating the use of BM since it provides significant exposure and increases the visibility of the national language in public spaces. EO1 and EO3 shared similar responses, indicating that signs not only reinforce BM's status as the official language but also serves as a significant tool in strengthening national identity and preserving cultural heritage. Several sign creators in the survey tourist sites during the interview also agreed with the sentiment that the use of BM symbolizes Malaysian identity and its culture. This perspective aligns with previous LL studies in Malaysia which highlight BM's role as both symbol of national unity and index of local identity (Anuarudin, 2017; Beh, 2017; Coluzzi, 2017; Manan et al., 2015). Some of them also mentioned that the use of BM fosters unity among Malaysians, similar to the sentiment made by EO2, who added that "… *prioritising BM on signs provides a clear message about its significance and its role in uniting all Malaysians*".

They also believed that prioritising BM on signs would encourage widespread use of the language among both public and business proprietors. EO2 highlighted that when BM is prominently displayed, it helps to set a norm for others to follow which in turn could lead to increase voluntary compliance with language policies as businesses are aware of conforming to the language policies. She also explained that when business see the benefits of promoting BM, such as improve brand's image and alignment with national values, they are more likely to continue using BM prominently even in their communications. This will lead to greater fluency and appreciation of the language across different sectors and backgrounds (Coluzzi, 2017; Manan et al., 2015).

However, enforcement officers from both MBI and MPM also acknowledged the challenges in sustaining the use of BM with the need to preserve linguistic variety,

particularly in multilingual country like Malaysia. They further highlighted on another significant factor that impedes the broad use of BM in the current era which is the strong presence of English, especially in urban and tourist areas. As previously mentioned, English is often perceived as a global language for commerce, education, and tourism due to its appealing language. This perception may lead to high preference for English over BM, particularly in places where international visitors are common or where there is a target market to promote products and services. This is further exacerbated by the societal perception that English is associated with modernity, economic opportunity, and global identity (Fauzia et al., 2024; Jiao & Singh, 2024), which may potentially diminish the importance of BM in both public and commercial contexts. Such instance in the landscape reflects deeper sociolinguistic hierarchies shaped by globalisation and economic imperatives. According to EO3, the increasing use of English over time in public signs may inadvertently overshadow BM, thereby limiting its visibility and perceived importance. The responses shared by the local authorities clearly shows their concern about declining use of BM, particularly in outdoor signs.

In addition to these challenges, EO3 also highlighted the issue on the misuse of BM which has become norm these days. This concern was also raised in the local online newspaper, The Star ("Incorrect use of BM in advertisements", 2024) which reported that the misuse of BM is not the only concern; another issue that has become trending is the intentional mixing of words from different languages and the use of colloquial or slang words in advertisements to attract attention. When enforcement officers were asked about this, they confirmed that such practices not only reinforce incorrect use of the language but also complicate the enforcement of language policies as it leads to confusion among sign creators or advertisers between linguistic creativity versus the required standards of the national language policies. EO3 stated during the interview that while advertisers like to use bombastic words and phrases to attract customers, such practices should not justify the misuse or mixing of languages. She emphasised that BM should always take precedence and not to be misused under any circumstances to prevent linguistic deterioration, particularly among younger generations, and highlighted the importance of preserving its purity in modern days.

Due to the concern about the improper use of the national language on outdoor signs, the local authorities were also asked whether BM would still be prioritised without the enforcement of language policy. They expressed that it is best for the

policies to remain in place and to be strictly executed, as several factors as previously discussed could contribute to further decline in the use of BM. EO1 pointed out that this issue (misuse of BM) has been a topic of ongoing debate, and much criticism has been directed at DBP and local city councils for not adequately monitoring the implementation of BM on public signs. EO1 further emphasised that the local councils have consistently worked in collaboration with DPB to supervise and enforce the use of BM in all types of signs. According to EO1, most signs displaying incorrect BM were put up illegally, meaning they were installed without obtaining the required permit from the local authority. He explained that in order for a sign to be displayed, advertisers or advertising agencies must first have the language certified by DBP. Any report from DBP on the wrong use of BM or any other issues pertaining to the national language on signs (e.g., spelling, grammar, and sentence structure), the local city councils will take appropriate actions, either by issuing a fine or removing the signs. These measures have been implemented and will continue to ensure adherence to the language policy.

EO2 further stressed that in order for these rules and regulations to be fully adhered, the public must be made aware of language errors and the guidelines stipulated in the policies. To assess their awareness, few sign creators in the survey sites were queried on the language policies. Majority confirmed their knowledge on the stipulated language policies for public signs. However, four of the interviewed sign creators were unaware of the policies and believed that prioritising other languages is acceptable, especially when it comes to tourism industry and commercial businesses. This shows that there are still individuals who are unaware, which highlights the potential reason for improper implementation of signs in public space. Given these findings, EO2 emphasised the importance of ensuring that all parties, including advertisers and general public to understand the value and long-term benefits of promoting BM. He further mentioned that *"By fostering greater awareness and cooperation from the public, the proper use of BM can be reinforced, and this will help to preserve the national language and ensuring it remains a central element of Malaysia's cultural identity. This will eventually lead to proper implementation of language policies in public signs"*.

These responses provide valuable insights into how language policies are interpreted, implemented, and enforced within the jurisdictions of these local authorities. It can be concluded that most interviewed sign creators demonstrated awareness of the policies pertaining to language use on outdoor signs and the

consequences of not conforming to the rules and regulations stipulated. This is consistent with the findings of Anuarudin (2017), who reported that copywriters in Klang Valley, Malaysia, demonstrated a clear awareness on local language policy, and with Zimny (2017), who found that sign producers in Namibia actively negotiated with policy expectations rather than functioning as passive implementers. However, despite increased awareness and the existence of policies, not all signs adhere to prescribed standards. Recent studies, such as Mansoor et al. (2023) in Semenyih, Selangor, Malaysia, revealed that shop owners often prioritise English, Mandarin, and Tamil on signboards for symbolic and commercial purposes, downplaying municipal requirements to prioritise the national language. Similarly, research conducted in contexts such as Cameroon, Algeria (Pütz, 2020) and Nigeria (Belarbi & Belaid, 2025) demonstrates that private or bottom-up actors often deviate from official language policies, using language for commercial interest. The present findings reflect this broader pattern, as there are still signs that do not fully comply with the policy, as discussed in Section 4.3 (RQ2). These inconsistencies highlight the gap between policy and its execution, which is addressed and discussed further in the next section.

4.4.2 Actual Practice of the Linguistic Landscape in the Selected Survey Areas

This section discusses how language policies are applied within the selected survey areas. While the national language policy stipulates that BM must take precedence in all types of signs, it remains to be seen whether this is consistently practiced, especially in high volume tourist areas. This analysis explores the consistencies between the official language policies and the actual practices observed in the selected tourist sites of Pulau Pangkor, The Lost World of Tambun, and Teluk Batik.

The selected survey areas are known to be key tourist destinations in Perak that present diverse range of signs, ranging from commercial advertisements to public service announcements. Although observations in the selected survey sites indicate that most signs conformed to the regulations, there are still noticeable instances of non-compliance. Based on the analysis, these discrepancies are based on several conditions; some signs deviated in terms of placement, others give prominence to other languages, particularly English in terms of font size, and some signs are completely in other

languages with no presence of BM words. In analysing the consistencies between the policies and actual practice, monolingual signs in the survey areas were examined further. As indicated in the stipulated policies (refer to Section 4.4.1), it is compulsory to use BM in all types of signs, whether on its own or in conjunction with other languages. However, in practice, these regulations are not fully adhered to. Table 4.13 below shows the distribution and types of monolingual signs in the survey areas.

Table 4.13
Types of Monolingual Signs (n=725)

Type of signs / tourist sites	**Pulau Pangkor**		**Lost World**		**Teluk Batik**	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
BM only (government)	255	62.2	0	0	36	42.9
BM only (private)	87	21.4	0	0	31	37
English only (government)	2	0.5	0	0	10	11.9
English only (private)	64	15.6	222	96.1	7	8.3
Chinese (private)	2	0.5	9	3.9	0	0
Total	**410**	100	**231**	100	**84**	100

It could be indicated from the Table 4.13 that in both Pulau Pangkor and Teluk Batik, the number of government and private signs using only BM was higher than those using only English. In Pulau Pangkor, government signs using only BM accounted for 62.2%, while private signs made up 21.4%. Similarly, Teluk Batik also indicated a preference for BM, with 42.9% government signs and 37% private signs. This demonstrates consistencies between most of the monolingual signs and the stipulated language policy in both of the survey tourist areas.

Nevertheless, it is also important to note the presence of monolingual signs by government sectors in these two areas (Pulau Pangkor and Teluk Batik) that failed to abide with the regulations set by the policy. Although the number of these signs is not significant, it still shows inconsistencies in the LL of the survey sites. When the issue was raised during the interviews with the local authorities and some images (Figure 4.52 & Figure 4.53) were shown to them, it was explained that the occurrences could be due to several reasons. Firstly, is due to promoting accessibility for foreign tourists

and in some cases, to fulfil international standardisation. As explained by EO1, *"Based on my experiences, there are official signs especially the ones that are related to public safety or health that use English to align with the international standards. For instance, the previous COVID-19 health measures signs. I'm sure you have seen this kind of signs before, right? This is particularly to ensure that the crucial information can be understood easily and to abide with the regulatory requirements".*

Moreover, EO3 highlighted that English-only signs are sometimes displayed for attractions, specific events, or places, especially in tourist sites. In such cases, English is chosen due to its association with international tourism, ensuring that international visitors can easily access relevant information. This seems important in tourist destinations, where the presence of international visitors necessitates the use of a globally understood language. As observed by Artawa et al. (2023) in Bali and Teo and Perono Cacciafoco (2022) in Singapore, the strategic use of English on most signs is closely related to tourism development and the goal of enhancing accessibility for global audiences. Similarly, in the LL of Yogyakarta's tourist areas, English is often prioritised on signs as a mean to accommodate international visitors and align with the global expectations (Da silva et al., 2021). Example of this can be seen in Figure 4.52, where the choice of English, as explained by EO3, helps to align with the goal of making the site tourist-friendly and easily navigable.



Figure 4.52 Example of an Identification Sign with only English Word

EO3 also pointed out another reason for the use of English-only sign, as illustrated in Figure 4.53, which can be attributed to collaborations with international organizations, NGOs, or foreign governments. It is informed that most collaborations often use English as a common medium to represent their partnerships to ensure that

the information is accessible to a global audience. In the context of Figure 4.53, EO3 claimed that the presence of English on the sign reflects the partnership with the Rotary Club of Setiawan, which is part of Rotary International, known as a global humanitarian organization. He further explained that the Rotary Clubs often engage in charitable work that resembles NGO activities, particularly in areas like health, education, and infrastructure development. According to him, the slogan *"Take nothing but photographs, leave nothing but footprints"* carries a familiar environmental message that reflects the organization's collaborative efforts with local authorities in promoting conservation within the area. This demonstrates how international collaborations can influence language choices on local signs, especially when the partnership aims to provide accessibility to a global community.



Figure 4.53 Example of an Advertisement Sign Prioritising English

However, all interviewed enforcement officers claimed that these instances are very uncommon in government signs. They further clarified that such signs are rarely displayed in isolation. Typically, they are accompanied by another similar sign elsewhere featuring the same information written in BM, ensuring that both local and foreign visitors can access the necessary details. In occurrences such as this, the sign is either having another similar sign (e.g., two different signs with different language written) or bilingual sign with BM being the prominent language. All enforcement officers emphasised that regardless of any circumstances, BM must always be prioritised. One of the enforcement officers, EO1 remarked that, *"As the local authority, we need to play our role in ensuring that all signs comply with the policies, and it starts with us displaying the correct signs. Otherwise, we will face criticism for not adhering to the standards we are meant to uphold"*. Hence, this reflects the seriousness in

upholding BM through adhering to regulatory standards and at the same time embracing inclusivity, specifically in tourist places.

As seen in Table 4.13, the LL of the Lost World of Tambun display a completely different practice, with 96.1% of the monolingual signs were written in English, all of which are from the private sectors. This strong preference for English-only signs clearly demonstrate nonconformity with the national language policies, which is also a trend commonly observed in most LL of tourist areas (Babayode, 2023; Beh, 2017; Djonda & Madrunio, 2023; Mubarok et al., 2024). As highlighted by the interviewed enforcement officers, private sectors tend to favour English because the language is known to be the global language, which cater to diverse range of visitors, particularly international tourists. All interviewed sign creators in the Lost World of Tambun agreed that the use of English is said to ensure that visitors from different countries can easily navigate the site and access services available which help to increase their overall experience. LW2 explained that Sunway, which is a well-known developer in Malaysia, strategically uses English to position itself to compete with other tourist destinations. By doing so, it helps to reinforce its branding as a leading destination.

LW1 supports this further by mentioning that since the place is part of the competitive tourism industry, prioritising English is considered aligns with the global norms for attracting tourists. According to him, English is not only seen as a practical tool for communication but also carries a certain prestige so that the place is considered as on par with other global destinations. He further added that prioritisation of English is not something new, especially in tourism industry, where it has become part of a business strategy for many private sectors to enhance commercial interests by catering to international visitors who may not be familiar with the national language.

Despite English, another language found in monolingual signs, specifically in the two survey areas (Pulau Pangkor and the Lost World of Tambun) was Chinese. Although Chinese monolingual signs in the areas show a small proportion, their presence nonetheless shows inconsistencies between the stipulated language policy and actual practice. In Pulau Pangkor, Chinese monolingual signs made up 0.5% of the total, while in the Lost World of Tambun, they represented 3.9%, reflecting inconsistencies with the stipulated language policy. These monolingual signs were constructed by the private sectors. This occurrence was raised during the interviews with sign creators in the selected survey sites which they were asked on the reasons behind the

inconsistencies. One contributing factor towards the recurrent presence of the language is the large Chinese community in the survey sites. Ipoh, the state where the Lost World of Tambun is located, has a significant Chinese population, comprising 44.11% of the total population, surpassing the Malay community. Similarly in Pulau Pangkor, the Chinese population accounts for 48.5%, which also influences the use of Chinese language on signs. Many businesses in these areas are run by the members of Chinese community, which helps explain why Chinese language is sometimes used on monolingual signs in these areas.

However, in spite of the large Chinese population in both areas, the use of Chinese monolingual signs is not as overwhelming as BM or English. The reasons highlighted by LW3 are aligned with Beh's (2017) LL study of Penang, which stated that Chinese has lesser presence than English due to its limited commercial role compared to English, and the fact that it is not the official language, unlike BM. Furthermore, sign creator, PP7, also highlighted that Chinese monolingual signs are often used to cater to Chinese-speaking tourists, including from abroad. Using Chinese not only helps to make connection and provide access to the tourists but also serves to express their cultural identity with the language. Based on these responses, it could be asserted that private sectors may not feel that it is important to conform to the language policy.

The enforcement officers were also asked to provide the reasons behind the inconsistencies between the policy and actual practice made by most private sectors through their observations and surveys. Some of the reasons highlighted are:

i. English as the global language and perceived as economic value.
ii. English is known to be a simple language and catchy at times which helps to attract people's attention, compared to BM which the texts are normally lengthy.
iii. Commercial priorities- this refers to individuals or private sectors who prioritise their commercial objectives over strict adherence to language policy.
iv. Location and target audience also play an important role. If majority of the people in the area consist of non-Malays, then more likely the signs

will be in English or in some cases, Chinese. This applies to tourist-heavy areas.

v. Practical considerations- Some private businesses may argue that using BM or multiple languages on signs could make it too cluttered or too lengthy to read. In this case, they may opt for monolingual signs, especially English, which they believe will be widely understood by readers. Furthermore, creating signs with multiple languages can require more space, larger signage, all of which may increase production costs.

The responses from the enforcement officers mostly aligned with findings from previous LL studies. For instance, Hazaea et al. (2024) in their review of LLs in Saudi Arabia, found that the pervasive dominance of English in touristic spaces underscores the strong influence of economic and commercial considerations. Similarly, Lu et al. (2020) in their study of Hongcun Village in China, and Kimambo and Mdukula (2024) in their analysis of Tanzanian safari sites, highlighted that private signs in tourism contexts are often designed to prioritise readability and visual appeal, sometimes at the expense of language policy adherence. These studies collectively indicate that discrepancies between policy and practice are not necessarily due to a lack of awareness but are often due to deliberate decisions shaped by commercial priorities, target audience, location, and visitors' expectations. These findings are also consistent with the sign creators' responses during the interviews, as discussed in previous sections (Section 4.1 and Section 4.2). They emphasised the rationale for prioritising other languages, particularly English, which mainly due to its status as an international language. Most sign creators in the survey areas expressed a similar view, highlighting that English is more visible and associated with economic opportunities. According to them, it enhances accessibility for visitors and increase customers engagement.

Few sign creators further elaborated that using English is much easier compared to BM, as English words and phrases tend to be shorter, making the sign less text heavy. These feature, in their viewpoint, are essential for readers who normally do not prefer to read longer text, especially when it comes to an advertisement sign. According to them, some English words are also 'catchy', which help to attract people's attention in reading the sign. They further elaborated that most of the signs created are normally for their customers and intended for advertising and marketing purposes. This perception

is consistent with Anuarudin's (2017) study on advertisement billboards in Malaysia, where she found that English was often chosen for its appeal, trendiness, and ability to capture visual attention. This situation can be categorised under the second condition of Spolsky and Cooper's (1991) preference model, which is known as 'presumed-reader condition'. This is where sign creators prefer to write signs in the language(s) that intended readers or target audience are presumed to read. From the observation of the visual data and semi-structured interviews, it could also be notified that some of the signs can also be categorised under the 'sign-writer's condition', where the sign creators write the text using the language(s) they are familiar with. Since the reasons behind the language preference varies, therefore it could be concluded that these signs may fall under the 'presumed-reader condition' and/ or also the 'sign-writer's condition'.

Another aspect that is highlighted in the policy for sign display pertaining to language use is the placement of the national language, as well as the font size used. According to the policies, BM should be given priority in both aspects. However, in Table 4.7 and Table 4.8, there are instances of signs in the survey areas where the placement of BM words and the font used were not prioritised. This issue was also addressed during interviews with enforcement officers. All enforcement officers from the survey areas [Ipoh City Council (MBI) and Manjung Municipal Council (MPM)] further mentioned that it is compulsory for local authority throughout the states to follow the guidelines outlined in the Verification Procedures of National Language in Advertising prepared by Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka (DBP), which mandate that BM should be prioritised in terms of positioning, size, colour, and font (see Table 4.11).

They also explained the procedures of submitting an application of sign display in public spaces. According to the enforcement officers, applicant must first submit their visuals to DBP for the language to be checked. As the local councils responsible for monitoring the use of BM as the official language, DBP ensures that signs comply with language rules including grammar, spelling, translation (if any), sentence structure, and prominence in accordance with the official language policy. Local councils mandated that individuals or advertisers must obtain certification from DBP to get a permit to display their advertisements, which include signboards in public spaces and signs used by business premisses. If any signs fail to conform with the required standards, DBP will flag the errors and return the application to the applicant for corrections. The permit will be issued once the necessary revisions have been made. This verification process

ensures that BM is given proper visibility in terms of correct usage of words and sentence structure that align to the Verification Procedures of National Language in Advertising. Figure 4.54 provides a flow chart illustrating the verification process, adapted from the Verification Procedures of National Language in Advertising.

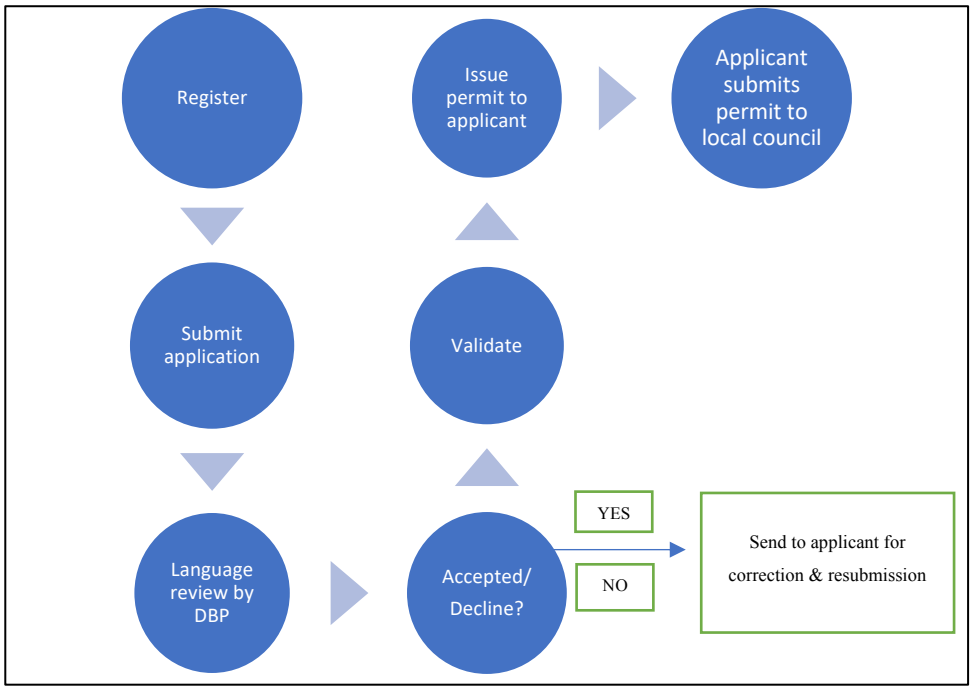

Figure 4.54 Verification Process for National Language in Sign Display

Although the policy and procedures have been extensively laid out, there are still cases, especially from private sectors, where signs failed to comply with the regulations. They often justify this by citing reasons like catering to non-Malay speaking audiences or belief that English is commercially appealing. Even though Malaysia's language policy regulates the use of Bahasa Malaysia on public signs (National Language Act, 1963/67), studies have consistently shown that full compliance is still limited, especially in commercial settings (Anuarudin, 2017; Beh, 2017). One common justification is the belief that English enhances commercial appeal, aligning with Spolsky and Cooper's (1991) model of linguistic preference, which suggests that private establishment tend to prioritise customers' expectations over policy compliance. Similarly, Backhaus (2007) highlights how the perceived economic and symbolic power of English in multilingual landscapes influences the language choice on signs.

More recent studies echo this pattern within tourism and urban contexts, where English is often used for prestige and accessibility. For instance, Al-Sofi (2024) found that businesses in Middle Eastern tourist destinations preferred English to attract international visitors, while Alotaibi (2024) observed similar tendencies in Saudi Arabia's bilingual signage, linking English visibility to globalisation and market competitiveness. Likewise, Ebol and Bayang (2024) reported that English dominated signage in the Philippines' tourism areas, serving both economic and communicative purposes. This trend is evident in the current study, where private individuals or sectors cited the need to cater to non-Malay-speaking audiences as a key reason for not fully complying with the policy requirements.

Despite these challenges, the ongoing collaborations between DBP and local councils ensures there is a structured mechanism in place to monitor compliance, issue corrections, and maintain the prominence of BM in public spaces. Under the 1995 amendments to the Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka Act, DBP is also entrusted with the responsibility of monitoring the use of the language in public places, implemented through directives, reviews, advice, assistance, guidance, training and supervision. The collaboration between the two entities plays a crucial role, particularly in helping to streamline enforcement and prevent discrepancies between policy and actual practice. This measure reinforces a strict enforcement, enabling both entities to uphold the policies governing the LL more effectively.

4.4.3 RQ3: Consistency between Actual Practice and Stipulated Language Policies – Conclusion

Findings from the visual data in the LL of the survey tourist areas reveal a complex linguistic situation between the official language policy and actual practice. It was found that only signs from the two survey sites, Pulau Pangkor and Teluk Batik generally adhered to the stipulated policy. Most monolingual and multilingual signs from government and private sectors in these areas showed consistency between policy and actual practice, particularly in terms of order of appearance and font size used. BM was appropriately prioritised, with signs generally placing it at the top and giving it prominence through font size, as required by the policy.

The findings from this study align with trends reported in previous LL studies. For instance, in Seochon Village, Seoul, Korean remains salient in the LL as part of an "endeavour to preserve cultural identity and authenticity" even as English is widely used for tourism (Lee & Lee, 2025). A similar pattern was also visible in selected Indonesian cities, where national language was foregrounded in official or policy-driven signage to convey authenticity and legitimacy (Sakhiyya & Martin-Anatias, 2020). This reinforces that national language continues to hold symbolic dominance despite the linguistic diversification brought about by tourism and globalisation. However, in the Lost World of Tambun, neither monolingual nor multilingual signs fully complied with the policy regarding placement or font size. The findings reveal that most of the signs gave prominence to other languages, especially English, with larger and more noticeable fonts, even with the presence of BM (see Figure 4.42 and Figure 4.44). Moreover, the implementation of the official language policy has still not reached a satisfactory level, as signs without BM were still present in the LL of the survey areas. Therefore, it cannot be conclusively assumed that the actual practices in the LL of the survey areas are fully aligned with the stipulated language policy.

4.5 RQ4: Public's Perception of the Linguistic Features of the Linguistic Landscape of the Selected Tourist Sites

The fourth research question in this study examines the public's perceptions and preferences regarding the LL in the selected survey sites using a survey questionnaire. The questionnaire was adapted from Anuarudin (2017), Wang (2015), and Woo and Riget (2020), and comprised of 25 items (refer to Appendix 1). It was randomly distributed to 714 respondents through both online (WhatsApp and email) as well as on-site data collection (survey link or QR code). Printed copies of the survey were also handed out directly to the respondents who encountered difficulties in accessing the online questionnaire. The survey was divided into three parts: Part A for demographic information, Part B for respondents' perception regarding public signs available in the selected survey areas, and Part C focuses on language and visual preferences. The findings are discussed in the following sections.

4.5.1 Respondents' Background Information

A total of 714 survey questionnaires were randomly distributed. Among the respondents, 331 were male and 383 were female, representing various age groups and races. The majority (55.5%) fell within the 20–30 age group, while the smallest group (3.9%) was aged over 56 (refer to Table 4.14).

Table 4.14
Percentage of the Respondents' Age Groups

Age Group	No of Respondents	Percentage (%)
20 – 30	396	55.5
31 – 43	166	23.2
44 – 56	124	17.4
Above 56	28	3.9
Total	**714**	100

In terms of respondents' race, 51.7% were Malay, followed by 26.8% Chinese, 15.5% Indian, and 6% categorised as 'others', primarily individuals from Sabah and Sarawak (e.g., Iban, Bajau, Sino and Kadazan), as well as foreign tourists. This distribution is expected as it aligns with Malaysia's demographic composition, where Malays represent the largest ethnic group, followed by Chinese and Indians. Most respondents were local tourists, mostly from Perak and Selangor. They were also a small number of foreign tourists from Middle East, Brunei, Korea, America, China, United Kingdom, and Ireland who participated in the survey.

Findings also reveal that 79.1% of the respondents were fluent in at least one other language, other than their mother tongue, with BM and English being the most common additional languages. The respondents also came from different professions and levels of education. In terms of visiting the survey tourist sites (as illustrated in Table 4.15), majority of the respondents had visited these locations, especially Pulau Pangkor. The total (n=919) exceeds the number of survey respondents (n=714) as respondents were permitted to indicate more than one tourist site previously visited. This proves that most respondents are generally familiar with the survey locations, indicating that these sites, especially Pulau Pangkor, are popular and frequently visited. This familiarity implies that the respondents' views on public signs and language use

are likely based on personal experiences. Such insights add depth to the study, as the respondents' personal context and understanding of the tourist sites enhance the reliability of their feedback on public sign preferences (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Pearce, 2012).

Table 4.15
Percentage of Visiting the Survey Tourist Sites

Tourist site	No of Respondents	Percentage (%)
Pulau Pangkor	349	37.9
Lost World of Tambun	283	30.8
Teluk Batik	287	31.2
Total	**919**	100

4.5.2 Respondents' Perception Regarding Public Signs Available in the Selected Survey Tourist Areas

Part B of the questionnaire examined respondents' perceptions towards public signs available in the survey tourist sites. Based on the first question (Q1) of the questionnaire, findings reveal that 96% of the respondents agreed that public signs are important in tourist sites, while only 3.8% voted that it is 'sometimes' important. This suggests that generally majority of the respondents are conscious with the presence of the signs within the LL of the selected survey sites.

The second until the eight items of the questionnaire were developed based on 6 selected images from the total 1039 signs photographed across the selected survey sites. Specifically, two representative sign images were chosen from each site which these images were attached for the respondents' reference. The images were randomly chosen as this was to seek their views and opinions on the languages used and their preferences in the LL of the selected survey areas. The first three images under question 2 were examples of multilingual signs that contained three languages, which were BM, English, and Chinese (refer to Appendix 1). Question 2 specifically asked whether the multilingual signs on the tourist sites attract their attention when travelling. Based on the impressions of the respondents, majority of them believed that the signs are attractive, with 78.8% rated for 'very much'. The respondents were then asked on which language is often used on public signs of Malaysian tourist sites. For this question, respondents may tick more than one option. Table 4.16 shows the respondents' impressions of the languages used most often on public signs in most tourist areas.

Table 4.16
Respondents' Opinions of the Languages Used most often on Public Signs of Malaysia Tourist Sites

Language	No of Respondents	Percentage (%)
Bahasa Melayu (BM)	267	25.8
English	203	19.6
BM & English	383	37
Chinese	132	12.8
Tamil	44	4.3
Others (Arabic)	5	0.5
Total	**1034**	100

Based on the findings, 37% of the respondents perceived that the combination of BM and English is more common in tourist sites, despite visual LL data (refer table 4.3) indicating a higher prevalence of BM-only signs. This perception may reflect respondents' expectations for high visibility of multilingual signs (combination of BM and English), especially in tourist areas in order to cater to both local and international visitors. Multilingual signs, particularly those in BM and English, are often placed in noticeable, high-traffic areas, making them more visible to visitors. This expectation likely shapes respondents' perceptions, leading them to believe that multilingual signs are more prevalent than it actually is. The findings also substantiate Sieras' (2024) claim that the presence of English in multilingual signs not only reinforces its role as a lingua franca but also contributes to positive perceptions about the destinations or services. Similar observations were made by Artawa et al. (2023) in the LL of Bali, where inclusion of English in multilingual signs was perceived as crucial in tourist areas, even when monolingual Indonesian signs were more visible. This distinction between what is perceived, and actual representation reveals a nuanced difference in the LL of the survey sites, reflecting how visual prominence can influence public interpretations of language use in public spaces.

In response to question 4, which asked about the languages deemed important in Malaysian tourist sites, 52.1% of the respondents were of the opinion that combination of BM and English should be used in tourist sites, followed by BM with 17.9% and English with 14.1%. In contrast, only 9.8% preferred Chinese, 5.5% selected Tamil, and total of 0.4% chose other languages, including Arabic and Latin (refer to

Table 4.17). The use of BM and English conform with the status of these two languages in the country, with BM serving as the national and official language and English as the language for business and international communication. The result reflects the general perception across LLs, where both the national language and English are commonly used in tourist sites. The findings are supported by Wang and Gao (2025), who found that in the heritage site of Luang Prabang, Laos, bilingual signs combining Lao and English was commonly displayed in most of the tourist sites to serve the communicative needs of both locals and international visitors.

Similarly, Hazaea et al. (2024) also reported that the LLs of tourist destinations in Saudia Arabia often rely on bilingual signs displaying Arabic and English signs to promote accessibility to global audiences. These findings also validate the views shared by most sign creators during interviews, who agreed that using both BM and English on signs effectively conveys essential information to Malaysians, most of whom are fluent in both languages, while also accommodating English-speaking tourists, who make up a significant portion of visitors to the survey sites.

Table 4.17
Respondents' Opinions on Important Language(s) for Malaysian Tourist Sites

Language	**No of Respondents**	**Percentage (%)**
Bahasa Melayu (BM)	128	17.9
English	101	14.1
BM & English	372	52.1
Chinese	70	9.8
Tamil	39	5.5
Others: (Arabic)	2	0.3
(Latin)	1	0.1
Total	**865**	100

In question 5 (refer table 4.18), respondents were asked for their overall opinion on the multilingual signs displayed in Malaysian tourist sites. This question aimed to assess both the attractiveness of the signs and respondents' attitudes toward them, based on their observations or experiences. Survey responses revealed that approximately 79.4% rated the signs as 'good' to 'very good', indicating positive feelings towards the multilingual signs. This suggests that most respondents find the available multilingual

signs attractive, likely appreciating its role in enhancing accessibility for diverse visitors.

Table 4.18
Respondents' Opinions on the Multilingual Signs Displayed in Malaysian Tourist Sites

Rating *(Very bad 1 2 3 4 5 Very good)*	**No of respondents**	**Percentage (%)**
1 (very bad)	4	0.6%
2 (bad)	19	2.6%
3 (moderate)	124	17.4%
4 (good)	419	58.7%
5 (very good)	148	20.7%
Total	**714**	100

The question further asked respondents to provide reasons based on what they have rated. Many respondents highlighted 'clarity' and 'understandability' as the main reasons, highlighting that multilingual signs available make essential information easy to understand and accessible to diverse readers. This is in concordance with recent studies in Shanghai, which emphasises that clear multilingual signs play a crucial role in enhancing communication and ensuring visitor's satisfaction in linguistically diverse spaces (Han, 2021; Wang, 2023). Teo and Perono Cacciafoco (2022) also reinforce the importance of clarity and readability of signs in tourist sites as it enhances both comprehension and visitors experience.

The positive ratings, as explained by the respondents, were further attributed to the signs' accessibility and convenience, noting that they are easy to refer to and help to simplify navigation for tourists. This resonates with insights shared by few sign creators during interviews, where they emphasised the importance of multilingual signs in helping diverse groups of tourists navigate and understand important information. Furthermore, the aesthetic qualities of the signs described by the respondents as colourful and unique, add to the sites' appeal, making the landscape more engaging and memorable. This echoes with Jaworski and Thurlow's (2010) sentiment, who emphasised that visually appealing LL elements like images, font and colours can enhance visitors' experiences by creating more vibrant and culturally resonant environment. The significance of aesthetic multimodality on sign design, as highlighted by Artawa et al. (2023), is crucial in tourism landscape as it make the LL more attractive

and immersive. Collectively, these responses shared by the respondents reflect their positive attitudes towards the LL of the survey areas.

However, there were respondents (20.7%) who rated the signs as 'bad' (2 on the scale) and 'average' (3 on the scale), suggesting that they found the LL to be less engaging and attractive. An 'average' rating indicates that while the signs may be functional, they lack impact and fail to meet higher expectations in terms of design or clarity. Common criticisms from the survey include 'overcrowded text', which makes the signs difficult to read and time-consuming to interpret, as well as 'excessively lengthy' texts that respondents felt could lead to misunderstandings. Few sign creators acknowledged these concerns during the interviews, noting that space constraints often lead to dense text arrangements, which can affect readability. This could also contribute to the preference of using monolingual signs by some sign creators, for example, PP2 and TB3. They expressed their preference for monolingual signs, stating that monolingual signs would improve readability and allow crucial information to be conveyed more effectively. This challenge is also noted by other LL studies conducted, such as Kallen (2009), who discusses how unclear multilingual signs can hinder comprehension. Lu et al. (2020) also highlighted similar issue that overly complex signs can negatively impact accessibility.

Several respondents also shared their opinions on the design which some signs appeared to be plain, rigid, lacking in visibility, and aesthetically outdated, reducing its visual appeal which is believed to be necessary in engaging readers. In addition, a few respondents pointed out issues on misspelled words and occasional language inaccuracies, which some felt detracted from the professionalism and effectiveness of the signs. Respondents also pointed out that not all signs are truly multilingual, with only BM and English often being prioritised, and some translations between BM and English reported to be poor or inaccurate. This echoes with Backhaus's (2007) findings, which emphasised that language errors can undermine the credibility of multilingual signs. More recent studies have similarly proven that poor translation quality and linguistic inconsistency can affect the perceived professionalism and reliability of signage, specifically in touristic areas (Al-Nai'mat, 2015; Alotaibi, 2024; Wang, 2025). According to Hazaea et al. (2024), inaccurate translations not only reduce readability but also distort intended meanings, thereby undermining both the aesthetic value and communicative clarity of multilingual signs. Addressing these concerns is therefore

crucial, as improving the quality, readability, and aesthetic appeal of multilingual signs can significantly enhance the overall accessibility and appeal of the LL.

For question six until eight, three random images of signs with each representing the selected tourist sites were displayed (PS1- Pulau Pangkor, PS2- Lost World of Tambun, and PS3- Teluk Batik). This was to seek information on the respondents' language and visual content preferences displayed on the signs. Sign 1 (PS1) contained two languages, which were BM and English, Sign 2 (PS 2) displayed English, BM, and Chinese, and Sign 3 (PS 3) used BM and Arabic. Table 4.19 displays the findings on whether or not the respondents read all the words on the signs and also the preferred first language chosen to read by them.

Table 4.19
Percentages of Respondents' Reading Preference

	Read all the words (%)	**Read selectively (%)**	**Total (%)**	**Read BM first (%)**	**Read Eng first (%)**	**Read Chi/ Arab first (%)**	**Total**
PS 1	53.1	46.9	100	94.4	5.6	0	100
PS 2	40.7	59.3	100	22.4	66.3	11.3	100
PS 3	21.6	78.4	100	78.6	0	21.4	100

Table 4.19 revealed notable trends in language preference across the three survey sites. For PS1, 53.1% of respondents read all the words, indicating high engagement since the sign displayed two languages that most Malaysians are fluent in (BM and English). For PS2 and PS3, there was a shift towards selective reading, with 59.3% and 78.4%, respectively. This suggests that unfamiliar language or more complex signs, like PS2 and PS3, may hinder readers to read the whole signs. Similar findings have been documented in previous LL studies such as by Anuarudin (2017), which sign complexity including language placement, font size and the presence of unfamiliar language often discourage readers from engaging with the full content of the sign. In tourist landscape, Fauzia et al. (2024) found that multilingual signs containing unfamiliar language often resulted in selective reading which happens mostly in multilingual contexts.

In terms of language preference, the results also show that BM dominated as the first language read on PS1 and PS3, with 94.4% and 78.6% respectively. In contrast, English emerged as the 'most-read first' language for PS2 (66.3%), indicating its

prominence in multilingual contexts. Respondents were then asked under item 7(ii) on the reasons behind these preferences. For most respondents, the choice of the first language to read was influenced by the font size and its position on the sign, with larger fonts and text appearing on the first line being prioritised. This is in line with what was explained by the sign creators during interviews. PP1 explained that people generally prefer larger text and are naturally drawn to what appears first on the sign, as it is easier to read and immediately captures their attention. Similarly, TB2 emphasised that *"... sometimes people don't have much time to read, so placement of words and 'bigger' text are crucial for quick comprehension".* This suggests that design features such as font size and placement play a significant role in determining how information is accessed and understood by readers.

Another significant reason cited by most respondents for choosing BM or English as the first language to be read on signs was their familiarity with these languages. The findings reveal that both languages (BM and English) are commonly used and widely understood among Malaysians, making them the preferred choices. This confirms the views shared by most sign creators during interviews, who emphasised that these two languages are the preferred language to be used in most public signs due to their status in Malaysia. BM, as the national and official language, is deeply ingrained in the daily lives of Malaysians, while English serves as the country's second language, which is widely used in education, business, and international communication. Similar findings were drawn in Beh's (2017) study of George Town, Penang, where most signs displayed reflected a deliberate choice by sign makers to include both BM and English as the preferred languages. BM was selected due to its status as the national language, while English was used for its role as the country's language which is widely used in various domains. This instance is further supported by Anuarudin (2017) and Zaini et al. (2021), whose findings similarly identified BM and English as the most preferred languages in public spaces for similar reasons. These studies conducted shown a recurring trend in Malaysia's LL, confirming that BM and English serve as the dominant linguistic codes that serve both symbolic and practical functions in LL construction.

The respondents were also asked in the following question (question 8) on what they would look first when looking at signs available- the words, visual content, or both, and also the reasons for their choices. The findings for their choices are displayed in Table 4.20.

Table 4.20
Percentages of Respondents' Display Preferences (n=714)

	Words	**Visual content (Picture, colour)**	**Both (words and visual content at the same time)**	**Total**
PS 1	55.5% (n=396)	13% (n=93)	31.5% (n=225)	100%
PS 2	34.5 % (n=246)	32.6% (n=233)	32.9% (n=235)	100%
PS 3	39.4% (n=281)	28.2% (n=201)	32.5% (n=232)	100%

The data shows that majority of the respondents looked at words first when viewing signs, with PS1 showing the highest preference at 55.5%. This is followed by those who preferred to attend to both words and visual content as secondary preference, particularly for PS2 (32.9%) and PS3 (32.5%). When asked to choose the reasons for their choice, a significant number of respondents stated that they prioritised words to understand the information being conveyed. A total of 692 respondents who chose to look at both words and visuals explained that they wanted to ensure the consistency between the visual elements and the accompanying text. In question 9, respondents were asked to rank the factors they considered as the most important in capturing their attention when viewing signs. The findings revealed that the 'arrangement of words' was the most important factor in capturing readers' attention, with 36.8% of respondents ranking it the highest, followed by font size (27.7%), visuals (23.1%), colours (6.6%) and type of font used (5.7%) as the least important. This indicates the critical role of 'arrangement of words' in ensuring that public signs effectively capture attention. In the context of tourist areas, where visitors often rely on signs for quick and accurate information, well-arranged text is essential. A clear text of information helps tourists locate key details such as directions or safety instructions without confusion. As one of the sign creators (TB3) stated, *"For me, I prefer text that is clear and well-organised.*

This is because it helps to capture the reader's attention instantly and avoid confusion". This highlights how arrangement of words enhances readability and supports rapid information processing.

Font size, which ranked second at 27.7%, is believed to be significant for enhancing the sign visibility. This factor is particularly relevant in tourist areas, where signs must be accessible to diverse audiences, including individuals with visual impairments and those navigating crowded environments. Larger fonts improve readability, allowing information to be identified easily. This is echoed in multiple LL studies that highlight how font size contributes to language saliency and overall accessibility of signs (Mulyawan et al., 2022; Torkinton, 2009).

During the interview with one of the sign creators, TB2, emphasised the importance of font size on signs, noting that it plays a crucial role in making information stands out and ensuring readability. TB2 further explained that in crowded areas, such as marketplaces or popular tourist attractions, font size can be impactful on how well people can read and grasp the information displayed. Furthermore, with clear font size, it helps to differentiate important information from less critical ones which further improving the overall effectiveness of public signs. Nikolaou (2017) highlight that typographic salience through variations in size, boldness, and position helps to guide readers' attention, ensuring that key message is more easily perceived and retained. Although the findings highlighted arrangement of words and appropriate font size as the two most critical factors in creating effective signs, other elements, such as colours, visuals, and font type, are also believed to contribute to the overall visual appeal, ensuring that signs remain readable, accessible and engaging for diverse audiences and purposes.

Another notable feature commonly found on most Malaysian public signs is the inclusion of translations, with many signs displaying mutual translation, typically BM and English. According to most sign creators interviewed, providing translation especially in tourist areas offer convenience and facilitates comprehension, thus enabling messages to be sent effectively. The public also shared similar views on the importance of translations, as reflected in the findings of the survey. Based on the findings, 82.8% of respondents agreed that translation greatly assist in understanding the message conveyed. This is followed by 9.2% of them who felt visuals were easier to interpret than written text, and 8% who believed translations were less helpful due to

potential of the translation version which might convey different meaning. These results suggest that, for the majority, the presence of translation on signs does really serve purposes, especially in transmitting information and make it easier for readers to comprehend.

Sign creators were also questioned on the significance of having translation on signs and majority agreed that they serve essential purposes, particularly in tourist areas. One of the main reasons mentioned was the ability to cater to visitors who may not be fluent in one of the languages displayed. According to most sign creators, even with partial translation, it could still assist readers to comprehend the text displayed. Based on their experiences, translation does help to bridge language barriers which known to be a common problem faced by many visitors and improve their comprehension. This is particularly important in tourist-oriented areas, where effective communication is critical for navigation, safety, and accessibility.

Recent LL studies have also expanded the discussion on translation beyond its functional purpose. Several scholars have demonstrated that even partial or selective translations can perform meaningful communicative roles. For instance, Sieras (2024) and Napu (2024) both argue that incomplete translations can strategically guide tourists' navigation through space, serving as cognitive anchors that help readers infer meaning from limited cues. Sha's (2025) findings complement this view by illustrating how such translations can foster tourists' confidence in multilingual environments, particularly in contexts involving transportation or safety information. Meanwhile, Al-Sofi (2024) extends the discussion by emphasising that lacking translation can limit accessibility and also could marginalise speakers of non-dominant languages.

Collectively, these studies reinforce the idea that translation is not merely a linguistic process but also a vital component in creating equitable and navigable public spaces. This perspective resonates with the experiences of sign creators in the current study, while extending the discussion to consider how language choices reflect social relationships and spatial dynamics in public spaces. In other words, these insights illustrate that signage is not just an informational tool but as a carefully negotiated space where translation, even in partial form, plays a crucial role in promoting social inclusion and mobility. Thus, it could be deduced that findings from the respondents' perceptions, regarding translation, aligned closely with the perspectives of sign creators, underscoring the critical role of translation. Both groups agreed that translation

improves practicality and functionality of signs, making information more accessible to diverse readers. The role of translation not only fulfils the purpose of transmitting information but also serve as a mean of fostering inclusivity within the LL of tourist context, as translated texts are designed to cater to tourist from different linguistic backgrounds and to construct tourist-friendly, accessible environments (Bilá & Vaňková, 2019; Song, 2021).

The final five questions in the survey focused on gathering insights into respondents' observations of public signs in tourist areas. In question 11, respondents were asked whether public signs in tourist locations comply with language regulations. According to the results, 68% of respondents believed that most advertisements adhered to the stipulated language regulations, while 32% felt that the advertisements did not align with the rules established by the authorities. To verify the consistency between the responses in item 11 and the actual LL observed by respondents, the subsequent question (question 12) inquired about the languages most frequently displayed on signs in tourist areas. The findings in Table 4.21 revealed that BM was the most frequently observed language by the respondents with 81.2%, followed by BM and English with 69.6%, and English only with 42%. This reflects consistency with the responses provided in the previous item.

Table 4.21
Language(s) Most Frequently Observed by Respondents on Public Signs in the Survey Tourist Areas

Language(s) observed on sign	No of respondents	Percentage
BM only	580	81.2
English only	300	42
BM & English	497	69.6
BM, English & Chinese	176	24.6
Chinese only	110	15.4

Furthermore, the findings also revealed that the respondents noticed the presence of Chinese language (Mandarin) on public signs, either alongside BM and English (24.6%) or as a standalone language (15.4%). The finding is expected since Chinese constitutes the second-largest ethnic group after the Malays (Department of Statistics Malaysia, 2020). Therefore, it could be said that the choice of language(s) displayed on signs might be affected by the largest ethnic communities in Malaysia,

which are the Malays and the Chinese. Also, the frequent use of Chinese on signs may be attributed to their significant economic influence.

The enforcement officers generally agreed that it is common to see Chinese language or dialects, especially Mandarin, being used on most signs due to two main reasons; one is because Chinese is known to be the second biggest community in Malaysia and the other reason might be due to the socio-economic factors which Chinese are said to monopolise the economy of Malaysia. As shown in the previous LL studies, the languages represented on signs often reflect the dominant cultural and economic groups in a given area (Anuarudin, 2017; Cenoz & Gorter, 2009; Gorter, 2006; Manan et al., 2015; Woo & Riget, 2020). Meanwhile, Tamil language is far less commonly seen on signs. This is likely due to the smaller population of Indian community in Malaysia which the language is not widely spoken by many Malaysians, thus, making Tamil less prominent in the LL of Malaysia (Jiao & Singh, 2024; Wang & Xu, 2018). This is similar to other research on multilingual LL, where minority languages often appear less frequently unless it is being reinforced by language policies (Gorter et al., 2012; Huebner, 2006; Landry & Bourhis, 1997). Overall, the findings highlight the complex interplay between demographic representation, economic influence, and language policy in shaping the LL of tourist sites in Malaysia.

4.5.3 Respondents' Perception on Language and Visual Preferences

Item 13 in the questionnaire (question 13) addressed respondents about their language and visual content preferences for public signs in tourist areas. Respondents were asked which language they prefer to read first when reading a sign. Table 4.22 shows the respondents' language preferences on public signs in the selected tourist areas.

As shown in Table 4.22, 50.8% of the respondents preferred combination of BM and English on public signs, making this the most preferred language combination in tourist spaces. Respondents identified three main reasons for their preference: (i) BM and English are the two languages that most Malaysians are fluent in; (ii) they cater to both local and international visitors; and (iii) they are convenient and easy to understand. This reflects the practical role of BM and English in facilitating

communication in tourist spaces which serve dual functions as Malaysia' s national language and as a global language of international communication, respectively.

Table 4.22
Language Preference on Public Signs in Tourist Areas

	No of respondents	Percentage
BM only	126	17.6
English only	75	10.5
BM & English	363	50.8
BM, English & other language(s) such as Chinese and Tamil	150	21
Total	**714**	**100**

It is worth noting that 21% of the respondents expressed a preference for BM, English, and other local languages such as Chinese and Tamil to be included in tourist spaces. These respondents highlighted the importance of recognising these local languages as heritage languages that contribute to Malaysia's multicultural identity. Although these local languages have a comparatively smaller commercial role than English in the tourism sector, their inclusion on signs can function as an identity marker and a symbol of cultural inclusivity (Beh, 2017).

The findings also show that only 17.6% of the respondents preferred BM-only signs in tourist sites, believing that BM, as the national and official language, should be prioritised above other languages. This perspective underscores the symbolic and functional significance of BM in reinforcing national unity and cultural identity. Only 10.5% of the respondents preferred English-only signs, citing its status as an international language and its role as Malaysia's second most important language as their reasons. The survey findings regarding language preference revealed a notable discrepancy with the empirical data from the visual analysis discussed earlier in this chapter, particularly in Section 4.3.1 on code preference. While the survey from the public indicated a strong preference for combination of BM and English sign, the LL visual representation showed that BM-only signs dominated the survey tourist sites, followed by combination of BM and English signs. This discrepancy suggests a gap between public preferences and actual practices, indicating that the current LL of Perak's tourist spaces does not fully meet the communicative expectations of the public.

The final item in the questionnaire (refer table 4.23) asked respondents about their preferences for visual content on public signs, such as images, colours, and font size. Based on the data, 52.5% of the respondents disagreed with public signs that display more images than words. The reasons given were that respondents prioritise clarity and precision in public signs, especially in tourist sites where accurate and clear information is considered important. They perceived words as more reliable for conveying specific messages, while images, though considered visually engaging, can sometimes lead to misinterpretation. However, the results for the preference for images were not far from the wordings, with 47.5% of respondents favouring images. According to the responses gathered, images are also attractive and can effectively convey messages.

Table 4.23
Visual Preference on Public Signs in Tourist Areas

	No of respondents Agree	**No of respondents Disagree**
Prefer pictures than words	339 (47.5%)	375 (52.5%)
Colourful font(s)	463 (64.8%)	251 (35.2%)
Same font size	258 (36.1%)	456 (63.9%)

In terms of colours, 64.8% of respondents preferred colourful fonts as they are considered more attractive and effective in capturing attention. This highlights the importance of colours in enhancing visual appeal. While previous LL studies (Anuarudin, 2017; Gorter, 2013) emphasise the role of visual aesthetics in attracting attention and sustaining engagement, the use of colours specifically contributes to improving the overall effectiveness of signs. Meanwhile, 63.9% of the respondents disagreed with using the same font size on all text within a sign, as they felt this create confusion and makes it difficult to distinguish important information from secondary details. Differentiating important messages through larger or bolder text is perceived as helpful in enabling readers to quickly identify and process critical information, a finding supported by scholars who emphasise the role of typographic hierarchy in enhancing readability and prioritising information in public spaces (Jin et al., 2025; Zhang et al., 2024).

The language and visual preference findings presented in this section reveal an important gap between what respondents expect to see in the LL of Malaysian tourist spaces and what is actually displayed. While the majority of respondents expressed a preference for multilingual signs, particularly BM and English combinations, the visual data showed that approximately 70% of signs across the three sites are monolingual. This perception-practice gap suggests that the current LL of Perak's tourist spaces does not fully meet the communicative expectations of the visiting public. It is also worth noting that relatively positive responses from some respondents regarding existing signs may not necessarily indicate that the current LL fully meets their needs, as Landry and Bourhis (1997) suggest that prolonged exposure to a particular LL may normalise language patterns encountered, leading readers to accept the status quo even when it does not fully reflect their actual preferences.

4.5.4 RQ4: Public's Perception - Conclusion

The findings from RQ4 provide a clear understanding on how respondents perceive the presence of languages and visual preferences in the LL of tourist sites, particularly in Pulau Pangkor, Lost World of Tambun and Teluk Batik. The results of the questionnaire reveal that while BM remains central as the national and official language, public perceptions and preferences regarding language use on public signs demonstrate the need for more inclusivity and practicality. This resonates clearly with what Anuarudin (2017) mentioned in her LL study that even though authorities have established rules and regulations governing language use in public spaces through their language policy, what public or society 'wants' may differ from the policies established. This could be seen in the public's preferences and perceptions through their choices made based on the survey conducted, which expressed a strong preference for the combination of BM and English. The public preferred to include other languages, especially English in the LL of tourist sites as this is comprehensible given that BM and English serve as dual function: BM serve as the official language and national identity, while English, as Malaysia's second language, ensures accessibility for international visitors and enhances Malaysia's global positioning.

This dual preference also aligns with the views of sign creators in the present study, who mostly preferred multilingual signs, specifically BM and English to be used in tourist spaces in order to cater to both local and internationals visitors. Recent LL studies focusing on readers' perceptions similarly demonstrates a preference for multilingual signs in public and tourist spaces. For instance, tourists in Northern Mindanao reported positive responses to multilingual signs that combines local and global languages (Sieras, 2024). Comparable findings have also been reported in tourism contexts, where bilingual and multilingual signs enhance visitors' comprehension, engagement, and overall experience (Hazaea et al., 2024). This suggests that multilingual signs not only support functional communication but also promotes inclusivity and accessibility across diverse readers.

Furthermore, few respondents also raised on the inclusion of other local languages, such as Chinese and Tamil, which were seen as heritage languages representing Malaysia's rich multicultural identity. It is important to acknowledge that local languages function as cultural identity markers despite their limited commercial role, as mentioned by Beh (2017). Enforcement officers interviewed for this study also believed that the inclusion of English and other local languages will not diminish the status of BM as the country's official language. This is not only to ensure functionality and accessibility of public signs but also reflect the country's multilingual and multicultural society. Aiestaran, Cenoz, and Gorter (2010) further emphasised the importance of acknowledging multilingual signs, as "… *the presence of multiple languages in public spaces is a global phenomenon that reflects the linguistic realities of diverse communities"* (p. 221). Thus, the findings based on the language preference highlight the gap between public preferences for multilingual signs and the actual representation (refers to the dominance of BM-only signs as shown in the LL of visual data), which highlights a mismatch that warrants further attention. This suggests that the construction of public signs in Malaysia tourist sites could be more inclusive and diverse while maintaining BM's prominence.

Another key insight from the survey findings concerns the importance of visuals and how they are perceived by the public. Based on the data, majority of the respondents preferred words over images as words were seen as more reliable in conveying accurate and unambiguous information, particularly in tourist sites. Nevertheless, images and other visual features, such as colours and font size, were also rated as important which

the visuals are recognised for their role in enhancing visual appeal and engagement. Interview data supported this view, as most sign creators agreed that visually appealing signs tend to engage readers effectively. The importance of aesthetics in signage design has long been recognised in LL research. Ben-Rafael (2015) and Al-Naimat (2015) argue that visual features such as colour, layout, and typography work in tandem with language to shape readability and interpretation. Similarly, Hazaea et al. (2024) and Wang (2025) emphasise that visually balanced designs not only capture attention but also enhance message clarity and engagement in multilingual contexts. These studies reaffirm that effective signage relies on the interplay between linguistic and visual designs, ensuring that signs not only informative but also visually engaging.

All in all, the findings highlight that while BM remains essential in upholding national identity and fulfilling policy requirements, it is also equally important to reflect and consider public's perceptions and preferences. As affirmed by Wang (2015), understanding how people react to a multilingual environment will help to provide valuable insights into the construction of the LL within a given public space. Recent LL studies have also expanded their focus to include the readers' perceptions, which is believed to be important in shaping effective and inclusive signs. For instance, Sieras (2024) highlighted that tourist signs in Northern Mindanao, Philippines becomes more functional and inclusive when it aligns with the expectations of readers. Likewise, Choeirod and Chanthao (2023) found that multilingual signs in Patong, Thailand, were most effective when they adhered to language policy while also responding to the linguistic preferences of visitors.

In line with these insights, the present study has fulfilled its objective by incorporating public's perceptions, which are increasingly recognised as a significant element in the construction of meaningful and functional LLs, especially within tourist spaces. However, the findings reveal a mismatch between public perceptions and the actual practices observed at the survey sites. While respondents expressed a strong preference for multilingual signs, particularly combinations of BM and English, the visual LL data demonstrated a predominance of BM-only signs, especially in government signs. This suggests that although public expectations favour greater multilingual accessibility, actual practices continue to be heavily shaped by policy compliance. Bridging this gap between public preferences and actual practices could

contribute to enhancing the inclusivity, communicative effectiveness, as well as visitors' experience of Malaysia's tourist landscapes.

4.6 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter presented and discussed the quantitative and qualitative findings based on the analysis of data collected from the selected tourist sites in Perak. The findings were organised and discussed in relation to the research questions. Specifically, the chapter examined the types and distribution of linguistic landscapes (RQ1), the linguistic features of the signs such as language choice and code preference, and text composition (RQ2), the consistency between language policy and actual practice (RQ3), and the public's perceptions and preferences regarding language and visual features of signs in the survey areas (RQ4). The following chapter presents an overall summary of the study and its key findings, followed by the study's implications, limitations, recommendations, conclusion and contributions.

CHAPTER 5
CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

Chapter 5 presents an overview of the study. This chapter discusses the summary of the study, a summary of the findings, implications, limitations, recommendations for future research, and the overall contributions and conclusion of the study.

5.2 Summary of the Study

This study focused on investigating the LL of the three selected tourist sites in Perak, Malaysia: Pulau Pangkor, Lost World of Tambun, and Teluk Batik. As Malaysia is characterised by a rich tapestry of multilingualism, as well as influenced by its cultural, historical, and ethnic diversity, these tourist sites present a valuable site for analysing language visibility, policy adherence, and sociolinguistics dynamics. This study aimed to explore the consistencies between language policy for outdoor signs and the actual practice in the LL of the selected tourist sites in Perak.

The national language policy mandates the compulsory use of Bahasa Melayu (BM) on all types of signs. The policy stated that when other languages are incorporated, BM must take precedence in terms of placement, font size and colour. However, given Malaysia's multilingual context, the actual representation on signs does not always align with the stipulated policy. Although official policies and regulations have made BM a prominent language in linguistic practices particularly on signs, few observations have revealed that the policies have not been fully implemented. The non-adherence and the presence of additional languages alongside BM often serve their own purposes and target. The way these languages are placed, perceived, interpreted and negotiated in public spaces provide important insights into the underlying reasons for non-adherence.

This study also investigated the public's perceptions and language preferences in relation to the LL of the selected survey sites. Since there are only a few studies that include public's perceptions on LL, this study aimed to bridge the gap by offering a more holistic view on the linguistic realities of the selected areas. Similarly, the perspective of sign creators who remain underrepresented in the LL literature were also explored to uncover their motivations and reasoning behind the creation of LL at the survey tourist sites.

The selected survey sites were chosen as they are among the top three most visited places in Perak, according to the 2019 Domestic Tourism Survey conducted by the Department of Statistics Malaysia. Another reason for conducting this study was the realisation on the lack of research done on LL related to tourism, especially in Malaysian context. Due to the issues discussed, this study aimed to address the gap by integrating several aspects mentioned by Wang (2015) in his LL study in Japan which he posed: a) what contributes to its formation; (b) how languages are used and regulated in certain place; and (c) how people respond to the multilingual environment. These aspects are significant to be investigated further where LL is concerned to describe the features and other relevant variables that could be found in the Malaysian tourist landscapes. This study was guided by the following research questions;

RQ 1. What are the types of linguistic landscape found in the selected tourist sites in Perak?

RQ 2. How are the linguistic features of the linguistic landscape displayed in the selected tourist sites in Perak?

RQ 3. To what extent do actual practices align with stipulated language policies in the linguistic landscape of selected tourist sites in Perak?

RQ 4. What is the public's perception of the linguistic landscape displayed in the selected tourist sites in Perak?

It is also important to acknowledge the influence of globalisation on LL construction, particularly in tourist spaces. This global influence may have implications for the mandated use of BM and often challenging its prominence in public linguistic landscape. As tourism is also highly impacted, it is necessary for this LL study to focus on the analysis of actual language practice of signs in the selected survey areas, where

the discrepancies between the language practice and stipulated language policy were investigated. To understand the relationship between policy adherence and actual practice, policy documents from local authorities such as Majlis Perbandaran Manjung (MPM) and Majlis Bandaraya Ipoh (MBI), along with official language guidelines from Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka (DBP), were examined. These documents serve as a reference for analysing the consistencies between the policy and the reality of what is actually practiced in the tourist spaces by both government and private sectors.

The analysis looked into how the country's official policy was reflected on the signs. The data corpus for this study consisted of 1,039 photographic samples of signs from the three selected survey areas, semi-structured interviews with enforcement officers and sign creators, as well as public survey involving 714 respondents. The visual data were first categorised based on authorship (government and private sector), monolingual and multilingual as well as sign type. This phase of analysis is crucial in identifying the code preference and also to determine whether or not BM was the only language found on monolingual signs in the LL of the survey areas. Findings from the visual data, semi-structured interviews, survey responses, and policy documents were triangulated in the discussion of each research question to provide a comprehensive and contextualised analysis. The following section presents a summary of these findings.

5.3 Summary of the Findings

The findings of the study offer valuable insights into the use of language in the LL of the selected tourist sites in Perak. This section summarises the findings discussed in the previous chapter in accordance with the research objectives and research questions of this the study.

5.3.1 Types of Linguistic Landscape and Linguistic Features of Multilingual Signs

A fundamental aspect in investigating the types of signs found in a particular LL involves distinguishing between government and private signs. This distinction is addressed in the first research objective and the first research question in this study,

which focused on how these two types of authorship contribute to the construction of LL in the selected survey tourist sites. The findings revealed that the linguistic landscapes of the survey tourist sites consisted predominantly of private signs rather than government signs, which reflect the commercial nature and orientation of the linguistic landscape in tourism context. As these survey sites are mainly tourist areas, the dominance of private signs was therefore to be expected. As highlighted by Purnamasari et al. (2024), government and private signs often exhibit clear differences not only in their linguistic preferences but also in visual appearance and communicative purposes. While government signs– particularly from ministries or local councils tend to prioritise public announcement, awareness, regulatory functions, private signs on the other hand, are geared towards promoting products and services, thereby embedding commercial value into the visual display. This distinction illustrates that each sign within a linguistic landscape has distinctive purposes and roles in shaping the linguistic and visual environment of tourist spaces.

Furthermore, this study investigated the prevalence of monolingual and multilingual signs which was addressed in the first research question. The data revealed that out of 1039 signs across the tourist sites, 70% were monolingual and only 314 multilingual signs were found in the LL of the survey areas. It was discovered that most of the multilingual signs were constructed by the private sectors mainly due to their preference of using more than one language which reflect their conscious and effort to cater to diverse readers, especially in tourism context. In the case of the survey areas in this study, the monolingual signs found were mostly coded in BM or English. This could be due to the status of BM as the national language, and English as the second language in the country which most Malaysians are fluent in either one or both. Due to this reason, sign creators appear to have operated under the same assumption that most readers would be proficient in at least one of these languages and able to relate to what is being written on the signs. This aligns with the condition outlined by Spolsky and Cooper (1991) known as the ‘presumed reader’ condition, where LL is tailored based on the anticipated linguistic repertoire of its intended audience. The LL of the survey areas therefore consists of mostly private and monolingual signs.

Besides that, this study also observed the types of signs available on the survey sites based on the function and use of signs. The data revealed a variety of sign types, including informational, identification, directional, advertisement, regulatory, as well

as warning and prohibition. This diversity reflects the evolving of tourism infrastructure in Malaysia and showcases how these signs are used not only for orientation and instruction but also for engagement and attraction. As noted by Gorter (2013) and Ben-Rafael et al. (2006), displaying various sign types is crucial in shaping how linguistic codes are accessed and interpreted. They further added that not only it serves for navigational and informational purposes, but it also carries symbolic and commercial functions. The diversity of sign types also shows active involvement of both government and private sectors in shaping a linguistic landscape that responds to the expectations of diverse readers. Based on the context of this study, government signs in the survey areas predominantly display regulatory, safety, and identification. In contrast, private sectors tend to lean more on displaying promotional and service-oriented signs which is believed to enhance consumer engagement and commercial visibility. All in all, the LL of the survey areas can be characterised as dynamic and diverse which designed to fulfil communicative functions within the context of the tourist spaces.

The second research question analysed the linguistic features displayed on multilingual signs across the survey tourist sites. As stated in the definition of terms in Chapter 1, linguistic features relate to how language(s) is presented and portrayed in public spaces. In this study, two main aspects of the linguistic features were analysed; code preference, which focused on language placement or arrangement and font size used, and the other aspect that was analysed was the types of text composition– referring to the translation of text within multilingual sign. In terms of code preference, the study analysed the language placement in order to see the prioritisation of certain language over others. Following Scollon and Scollon's (2003) framework, the language placed at the top, in the middle, or on the left side of a sign generally indicates its dominant status, or what is deemed known as the 'preferred code'.

Analysis of the visual data showed that BM was frequently prioritised and positioned prominently when used alongside other language(s), indicating the language as the preferred code. The prioritisation of BM is seen as a symbolic gesture to affirm national identity and adherence to the stipulated language policy. This reflects Spolsky and Cooper's (1991) 'symbolic value' condition under the 'Preference Model' which was discussed in Chapter 4, where language choice and arrangement are influenced not only by functionality but also by sociopolitical factors. The local authorities consistently

affirmed during the interviews that the visibility of BM represents a willingness among sign creators and advertisers to embrace their national identity as Malaysians.

Another important element influencing code preference is the font size used on multilingual signs. The analysis revealed a notable contrast when font size was considered. In many occurrences, although BM frequently appeared in the top position, particularly on the first line, the font size used for English, especially on private signs was noticeably larger and therefore visually more dominant. As highlighted by Backhaus (2005), font size can override placement in determining which language is most visually salient. Such instances may lead to non-compliance with the stipulated language policy, which requires BM must be prominent than other languages, even in terms of font size used. This finding therefore raises a critical question as to whether BM is genuinely used as the 'preferred code' by sign creators or simply included as a 'required code' to fulfil policy requirement. Based on the triangulated data from sign analysis and interviews, this study argues that the prioritisation of BM serves a dual purpose: it reflects the national identity and also ensure compliance with the national language policy. Hence, BM in this tourism related context could function as both the 'preferred code' and 'required code'.

The second linguistic feature examined was the type of text composition on multilingual signs. Among the various types of composition, mutual translation was the most commonly used and preferred in both government and private signs, followed by partial and harmonised translations. Even though the choices for these text compositions varied across the survey sites, yet it is crucial to recognise that the rationale or motives behind these choices remain complex and potentially varied. This is due to the various factors that may influence the selection of a particular text composition such as individuals or institution preferences and objectives, marketing strategies, target readers, locations and other contextual variables, as highlighted by Sari (2019) and Teo and Perono Cacciafoco (2022).

In terms of language use within the multilingual text compositions, BM and English translations were the most frequently used. Chinese also appeared on some of the texts in certain areas. Besides that, the inclusion of other languages, such as Arabic, Italian, and Latin, was also noticed. Although the presence of these foreign languages was limited, it still indicates effort to cater to specific tourist groups. Most of these languages were never used independently and appeared alongside BM or English,

which reinforces the centrality of BM as the official language and English as the global lingua franca. This shows that these two languages play a pivotal role in shaping Malaysia's multilingual linguistic landscape.

5.3.2 Consistency between Language Policy and Actual Practice and Public's Perceptions of the Linguistic Landscape Displayed in the Selected Tourist Sites

Research question 3 of this study examined the consistency between the stipulated language policy and actual practice in the selected survey sites. As outlined in the language policy documents, BM is advocated as the national language and must be featured prominently on any public signs, either on its own or alongside other languages. This includes precedence in terms of placement, font size, and colour. However, the actual practices in public spaces across the survey sites revealed varied levels of adherence.

In Pulau Pangkor and Teluk Batik, most signs including monolingual and multilingual from government and private signs generally adhered to the stipulated policy. Most signs in these areas showed consistency, particularly in terms of placement and font size used. BM was appropriately prioritised, with signs placing the national language at the top and giving prominence through font size. This indirectly fulfils both symbolic and regulatory functions. However, signs in the Lost World of Tambun demonstrated different practices, whereby neither monolingual nor multilingual signs fully complied with the policy regarding placement or font size. The findings revealed that most of the signs gave prominence to English, with larger and more noticeable fonts, even with the presence of BM. These patterns resonate with most recent LL studies, where economic and symbolic functions outweigh policy expectations, especially in tourism settings (Bonotan, 2025; Mendoza & Bernardo, 2025; Sha, 2025). Furthermore, the continued presence of signs without BM in the survey areas suggest that the language policy has not been fully implemented. This instance highlights a clear violation and reflects ongoing inconsistencies between policy and actual practice.

The overall data of the study revealed that the usage of BM was implemented in government signs but mostly disregarded in private signs, especially in the Lost World of Tambun. There were also other signs in the LL of the two survey sites (Pulau Pangkor

and Teluk Batik) that did not adhere to the language policy. This also included the monolingual signs found in the LLs. As explained in Chapter 4, most of the signs in the survey areas were monolingual, with many of them featuring English, and most of these signs were from the private sectors. This implies that the overt language policy is not respected by the private sectors, a trend that has been widely observed in other multilingual contexts, such as in China and Hong Kong (Tian & Tian, 2023; Wang & Liang, 2024). The preference is due to several reasons, which were highlighted by the sign creators and the enforcement officers during the interview sessions.

Interviews with sign creators and enforcement officers revealed that English is often chosen for its market appeal. English being the global language plays a critical role, especially in business and tourism industry, and is therefore viewed as more practical in attracting a broader audience. The present study has shown that sign creators like business proprietors or shop owners cannot afford to exclude themselves from their potential customers since English can convey messages effectively regarding the products and services offered. Moreover, several sign creators noted that English expressions are often shorter, visually impactful and can be catchy in comparison to BM, which is crucial in the construction of signs that meant to grab the attention of readers.

As discussed in Chapter 4, sign creators choose certain language(s) to display on their signs based on various pragmatic reasons and one of the main reasons being that English carries multiple symbolic functions that associate with internalisation, westernisation, modernisation, success and attractiveness (Cenoz & Gorter, 2008; Lai, 2007; Manan et al., 2015; Piller, 2001). The preference for using English is also aligned with Spolsky and Cooper's (1991) Preference Model which is known as the 'presumed reader condition', where language choice is made based on the language that can be read by the public. In this context, the potential readers of the English written signs include both Malaysians as well as international tourists who are generally proficient and can easily engage with the language chosen. However, given the observed inconsistencies in both monolingual and multilingual signs, particularly from the private sectors, the implementation of the official language policy has still not reached a satisfactory level. Therefore, it cannot be conclusively assumed that the actual practices in the LL of the survey areas are fully aligned with the stipulated policy.

The last objective of the study aimed to explore the public's perceptions of the LL of the selected tourist sites. The findings elucidated that majority of the respondents acknowledged the importance of public signs in tourist sites and expressed a strong preference for multilingual signs, particularly combination of BM and English. This preference reflects a practical approach that should be implemented, especially in tourist areas, where the national language serves local visitors while English broadens accessibility for international visitors. Such pattern is consistent with the common trend observed in global LL studies (Backhaus, 2007; Ben-Rafael et al., 2006; Guarin & Arias-Cortes, 2025; Hazaea et al., 2024; Mendoza & Bernardo, 2025; Sieras, 2024). This preference is also aligned with the linguistic realities in Malaysia, where many Malaysians are proficient in both BM and English, making these two languages the most common and preferred languages to be used on signs. The findings also elucidated that respondents prefer to read all the words when the sign displayed BM and English together as they are familiar with the languages.

Several respondents also raised on the inclusion of other local languages, such as Chinese and Tamil. According to them, these languages are seen as integral elements of Malaysia's cultural heritage and identity. Their views resonate with broader discussions in recent LL studies, where multilingual visibility is often interpreted as an affirmation of cultural diversity within tourist spaces. For instance, studies in Chiang Mai and Phuket, Thailand, demonstrate how local languages are incorporated alongside global language to balance heritage preservation and international accessibility (Pathanasin, 2025; Sha, 2025). Comparable observations have also been made in Indonesian contexts, where the presence of local languages such as Sundanese functions as a visible expression of local identity and communal belonging (Napu, 2024; Wirza et al., 2025). The enforcement officers also agreed on the similar sentiment that the inclusion of other local languages would not undermine the status of BM. Instead, they emphasised that these languages complement the multilingual and multicultural fabric that underpins Malaysian society.

Another significant insight from the survey findings concerns the role of visual elements in public signs and how they are perceived by the public. It was discovered that majority of the respondents preferred words over images as they prioritise clarity and precisions which both deemed to be important in tourist spaces. Nevertheless, preference for images and other visual features, such as colours and font size, were still

considered important by the respondents, as these features contribute meaningfully to the overall appearance of signage and increase engagement. This perspective was similarly reflected in the views of sign creators, who highlighted the importance of visual appearance in attracting passers-by. Contemporary LL studies in Indonesia and Thailand likewise demonstrate that visual design, including colour contrast, font variation, and image placement, can enhance communicative effectiveness and significantly attract tourist attention (Bennui, 2024; Ediwan et al., 2024; Mubarok et al., 2024; Prasert & Zilli, 2019). Collectively, these findings suggest that while textual information ensures informational clarity, visual features function as equally important strategies in enhancing engagement and enriching tourists' overall experience.

In short, it could be concluded from the questionnaire that BM and English are the most preferred languages for signage, although the reasons underlying these preferences vary among respondents. Despite a clear public preference for multilingual signs, especially BM and English combination, the actual linguistic landscape of the survey sites revealed a different practice with most sites displaying dominant use of BM or English-only signs. This disparity points to a gap between public expectations and implementation, where actual practices continue to be heavily shaped by the stipulated language policy as well as instances of non-compliance, resulting in limited multilingual representation in the selected survey sites.

5.4 Implications of the Study

The study offers several important implications to the body of knowledge. These implications are divided into four main categories: theoretical, methodological, pedagogical, as well as practical and policy implications. These implications are outlined in the following sub-sections.

5.4.1 Theoretical Implications

The findings of this study extend the existing body of knowledge on the LL by examining multilingual tourism settings in Malaysia, an area that remains underexplored. While foundational LL studies have established the symbolic and

informational roles of signage in constructing social meaning and spatial identity (e.g., Ben-Rafael et al., 2006; Huebner, 2006; Landry & Bourhis, 1997; Scollon & Scollon, 2003; Shohamy & Gorter, 2009), much of this work has focused on urban metropolitan contexts. By shifting the analytical focus to tourism spaces, this study demonstrates how language visibility operates at the intersection of regulatory obligation and market-driven motivations, revealing how English and BM coexist and compete for communicative and symbolic prominence.

Moreover, the findings reinforce the conceptualisation of the LL as a negotiated space, where the symbolic meaning of languages is influenced by competing global and local forces. In the context of this study, the prominence of English often indexes modernity, prestige, and international accessibility (Bruyel-Olmedo & Juan-Garau, 2015; Shang, 2024), whereas BM retains an indexical role, anchoring the landscape to national identity and authenticity. These patterns elucidate how linguistic hierarchies are not static but dynamically constructed through tourism economies, demographic targeting, and policy frameworks. In this way, the study contributes to a more nuanced understanding of how symbolic and indexical meanings are continuously renegotiated within multilingual tourism environments.

A further theoretical contribution of this study is the conceptual distinction between BM functioning as a 'required code' and BM functioning as a 'preferred code' in the LL of tourist spaces. While existing LL scholarship has examined code preference and language prominence in multilingual signs, the analytical distinction between languages that appear out of regulatory obligation and languages that reflect genuine preferences by individuals or community has not been systematically developed in the Malaysian tourism context. By triangulating visual data with interview evidence from sign creators and enforcement officers, this study demonstrates that the same language can serve fundamentally different functions depending on the authorship and governance context of the sign. This finding adds a new analytical layer to the preference model proposed by Spolsky and Cooper (1991) and extends its application to multilingual tourism settings in Southeast Asia.

Furthermore, the study engages with established LL frameworks while demonstrating the need for contextual adaptation. Concepts such as the presumed reader condition (Spolsky & Cooper, 1991) and the symbolic value of language codes (Ben-Rafael et al., 2006) remain analytically relevant; however, their application in Southeast

Asian tourism contexts reveals additional layers of LL frameworks. By integrating Trumper-Hecht's (2010) three-dimensional spatial framework, the analysis foregrounds the interplay between spatial (distribution of language), conceived (policy), and lived (perception) dimensions. In doing so, the study offers both empirical insight and theoretical refinement, contributing to the evolving conceptualisation of LL research in multilingual tourism contexts.

5.4.2 Methodological Implications

The present study provides significant methodological contributions, particularly within the field of LL research. By integrating quantitative analysis with qualitative interpretation, adapting established LL frameworks to the Malaysian tourism context, and employing expert validation and peer review procedures to strengthen coding consistency and credibility, this study contributes to both the methodological refinement and contextual application of LL research practices.

Firstly, this study contributes to LL methodology by demonstrating how quantitative and qualitative approaches can be systematically integrated to analyse language visibility in tourism spaces. Rather than treating signage as mere countable units, the mixed-methods approach combines statistical categorisation with interpretive analysis to capture both structural patterns and embedded social meanings behind the textual forms. This approach addresses limitations commonly found in single-method LL studies, such as insufficient contextual depth or overreliance on frequency-based description. By applying this integrated methodology to multilingual tourism contexts — an area that remains underexplored in Malaysian LL research, this study provides a transferable framework for examining language use in contextually grounded multilingual settings. The approach thus bridges numerical analysis and sociolinguistic interpretation, offering a replicable model for future interdisciplinary LL research across diverse sociocultural domains.

A particularly significant methodological contribution of this study is its systematic triangulation of four concurrent data sources: visual sign documentation, policy document analysis, semi-structured interviews, and survey questionnaires within a single LL study. Although individual LL studies have incorporated one or two of these

sources, the simultaneous integration of all four within a tourism context is uncommon in Malaysian LL research and provides a more complete and contextually grounded understanding of how language policy, signage practice, and public perception interact in real tourist spaces. This multi-source design offers a replicable framework for future LL researchers seeking to move beyond single-method approaches in multilingual and tourism-related contexts

Secondly, the study reinforces methodological rigour through the contextual adaptation of established LL frameworks (e.g., Ben-Rafael et al., 2006; Cenoz & Gorter, 2010; Edelman, 2010; Huebner, 2009). While maintaining comparability with prior research, these frameworks were recalibrated to reflect the sociocultural and regulatory dynamics of Malaysian tourism settings. They guided the categorisation of sign types, authorship, and linguistic features, while also facilitating interpretive analysis of how languages are strategically positioned within tourism spaces. This underscores the importance of applying LL frameworks flexibly when examining multilingual contexts beyond their original settings.

Thirdly, methodological robustness was further strengthened through expert validation and peer review of coding. For the quantitative analysis, two LL researchers validated the coding of linguistic categories and visual features to ensure classification consistency. For the qualitative phase, two experienced qualitative researchers reviewed the thematic coding of interview data to minimise interpretive subjectivity, in line with the peer validation protocol recommended by Nowell et al. (2017). Such cross-validation is essential in safeguarding analytical transparency and credibility. By applying this systematic verification across various datasets, the study enhances the credibility of its conclusions and establishes a rigorous standard for future mixed-methods LL research, particularly in multilingual contexts where interpretative variability may arise.

Overall, the methodological implications of this study highlight the value of a multi-layered analytical design that integrates visual, linguistic, and contextual dimensions. This integration of methodological rigour and interpretive richness allows a more nuanced understanding of LL within tourism discourse, and future research may build upon this approach to examine multilingual practices across diverse fields and contexts, thereby contributing to ongoing methodological development in LL research and applied sociolinguistics.

5.4.3 Pedagogical Implications

The findings of this study lead to several pedagogical implications. Firstly, the study highlights the value of the LL as an authentic pedagogical resource. Rather than treating signage merely as an object of reference, multilingual signs can be used as authentic instructional material that exposes learners to language as it operates in lived social environments. The multilingual signs documented across Perak's tourist sites provide concrete examples of how language intersects with cultural, economic, and identity elements (Dumanig & David, 2019; Jang, 2022). Engaging with such materials allows learners to move beyond textbook examples and examine how linguistic preferences function in real-world context. Moreover, incorporating LL data into classroom discussions encourages learners to critically analyse issues pertaining to language choice, multilingualism, and power relations in public spaces that foster critical reflection and strengthen sociolinguistic awareness (Algryani & Syahrin, 2021; Gorter, Cenoz & van der Worp, 2021; Sayer, 2010).

In practical terms, the LL data collected in this study can be directly incorporated into classroom activities across language and communication courses. For instance, LL documentation walks encourage learners to systematically photograph and classify public signs in their local environment, developing analytical skills grounded in direct observation of language in use. Moreover, photo-elicitation tasks allow learners to respond to multilingual sign images by discussing language choice, visual prominence, and cultural representation, thereby stimulating critical sociolinguistic reflection. Translation comparison tasks using the mutual and partial translation signs documented in this study also allow learners to evaluate accuracy, register, and the communicative adequacy of different translation strategies. These activities connect directly to the findings of this study, particularly the prevalence of mutual translation, the policy-practice gap, and the perception-practice gap, providing learners with authentic, locally grounded material that extends beyond the textbook.

Secondly, the study holds implications for curriculum development. Incorporating LL data into English for Specific Purposes (ESP), sociolinguistics, and tourism communication courses creates opportunities to bridge theoretical concepts with applied practice. For example, multilingual signs in tourist sites can be used to discuss inclusive communication strategies, while the dominance of English in certain

contexts can initiate discussions on globalisation, linguistic hierarchies, and cultural representation. Embedding such materials within course design can cultivate intercultural competence and reflective learning among learners (Arifin et al., 2020; Blackwood & Tufi, 2015; Kasanga, 2010). This approach also allows educators to facilitate deeper engagement with Malaysia's multilingual landscape.

Thirdly, the pedagogical implications further extend to tourism and hospitality education. LL analysis can be integrated into training related to destination branding and service communication, allowing learners to recognise how language choices shape tourism branding, influence visitor's perception as well as experience (Bruyel-Olmedo & Juan-Garau, 2015; Jaworski & Thurlow, 2010). Incorporating LL analysis into tourism and hospitality curricula also prepares future practitioners to critically evaluate multilingual communication strategies in professional contexts. This is particularly significant given that linguistic diversity is increasingly recognised as both a cultural resource and an economic asset within tourism education (Abdullah & Wulung, 2021; Nenotek et al., 2025).

Overall, these pedagogical implications underscore the role of LL as a bridge between theoretical knowledge and applied practice. Integrating LL into language, tourism, and other related courses offers meaningful avenues for learners to connect sociolinguistic theory with real life examples, thereby fostering language learning, analytical skills, critical awareness, and communicative competence. Such engagement further enriches the learning experience and deepens learners' appreciation of linguistic diversity as an integral aspect of social life (Dumanig & David, 2019; Malinowski, 2019).

5.4.4 Practical and Policy Implications

The practical implications of these findings offer critical insights for sign creators, policy makers, and tourism authorities in Malaysia. The findings reveal a clear gap between policy adherence and actual linguistic practices within tourist spaces. Observations from the selected tourist sites in Perak indicate that language policies governing public signs have not been fully adhered to. While government sectors generally comply with the regulatory requirements, private sign creators frequently

prioritise English for economic or aesthetic reasons, occasionally neglecting BM altogether. This pattern echoes concerns raised in previous LL studies regarding inconsistencies between official language policies and actual practices (Anuarudin, 2017; Beh, 2017; Wang & Xu, 2018). Such discrepancies reflect the persistent tension between policy adherence and actual implementation within Malaysia's LL.

In light of these findings, policy makers and local councils may consider revisiting and refining existing policies pertaining to signage to ensure greater clarity and enforceability. Specific parameters for language prominence, such as font size, colour contrast, and placement, should be clearly defined, and simple visual templates or design modules should be provided to reduce ambiguity and enhance compliance, especially among the private sectors. Moreover, given that constitutional and local advertisement by-laws already permit the use of additional languages alongside BM, a more inclusive and multilingual approach should be actively promoted, with one that safeguards the status of BM while reflecting Malaysia's linguistic diversity. Such an approach aligns with recent LL studies that highlight the importance of representing linguistic diversity and community identity in public spaces (Albury, 2021; Han & Wu, 2020; Mansoor et al., 2023).

The study also offers implications for destination branding, as the linguistic composition of public signs plays a strategic role. The visibility of English in commercial signs projects global connectivity and modernity, whereas BM reinforces national identity and local authenticity. A strategically balanced LL can therefore strengthen Malaysia's positioning as both internationally accessible and culturally distinctive. Strategic language planning in tourism spaces should align linguistic representation with broader national identity narratives and economic aspirations. A well-planned LL within tourist spaces has potential to function as a powerful semiotic resource that bridges local authenticity and global appeal.

The study further underscores the importance of stakeholder engagement in signage planning. By understanding the visitors' preferences and the symbolic implications of language representation, sign creators can make informed decisions on linguistic and visual selection that balance economic objectives with cultural representation. Involving community consultation and participatory initiatives may help to ensure that signage remains authentic and compliant, while meeting the global communicative needs. This collaborative approach resonates with recent LL studies that

emphasise the value of community involvement in constructing public signs (Blackwood, 2023; Lu et al., 2020).

These practical and policy implications therefore underscore the importance of collaborative engagement among policy makers, tourism authorities, sign creators, and researchers. The LL should not be viewed merely as a regulatory requirement, but as a strategic communicative resource that shapes destination image, cultural representation, and visitor experience. Through coordinated planning, clearer guidelines, and sustained dialogue among stakeholders, Malaysia's LL may evolve in ways that are inclusive, intelligible, and authentic.

5.5 Limitations

This study provides significant insights into the LL of the selected tourist sites in Perak; however, it has certain limitations that should be acknowledged. First, the scope of the study was restricted to three major tourist sites in Perak, which were selected based on data retrieved from the 2019 Domestic Tourism Survey conducted by the Department of Statistics Malaysia. As such, the findings cannot be generalised to all tourist sites within the state, nor to other regions in Malaysia. Each site possesses distinct linguistic and sociocultural characteristics that may influence the composition and representation of its LL.

Another limitation of the study concerns the variations in signage policies across different local councils and municipals, which posed a methodological challenge. Although the evaluated policy from the selected tourist sites revealed similar regulations, one site falls under the jurisdiction of the Manjung Municipal Council (MPM), while the other two are governed by the Ipoh City Council (MBI). To ensure analytical accuracy and consistency, the policy documents for each council were examined separately. In addition, the policies obtained from relevant websites and verified through semi-structured interviews with local authorities only reflect the regulations applied to the selected research sites. Therefore, the findings derived from the analysis of these policies cannot be generalised as representative of Malaysia's overall signage policy. However, this study may serve as a baseline for future research investigating the consistency between policy and actual practices.

Apart from that, obtaining responses from sign creators during the data collection was challenging and complex. Not all sign creators were approachable or willing to participate in the interviews, which inevitably limited the depth and diversity of perspectives captured. This difficulty in accessing and obtaining candid data from sign creators is a recognised methodological constraint in sociolinguistic research (Siziba, 2024). As a result, the outcome drawn from these interviews may not fully capture the range of practices and motivations underlying sign creation across Malaysia.

Besides that, the study also had limited participation of international tourists during the data collection period (December 2022 - June 2023). Although Malaysia had reopened its borders and tourism activities were gradually recovering, the number of international visitors at the selected sites in Perak during the data collection remained relatively limited. This situation may have been influenced by the slow rebound of international travel and economic factors affecting global mobility. As a result, study primarily relied on responses from local tourists and expatriates, which may not fully capture the range of linguistic perceptions and experiences from international visitors.

Despite these limitations highlighted, the study offers a meaningful contribution to understanding Malaysia's LL within tourism context. The limitations outlined above do not undermine the validity of the findings but rather highlight the complexity of conducting LL research across multilingual and contextually diverse environments. Acknowledging these limitations provides a basis for future research to expand or refine the scope of investigation such as incorporating a wider range of tourist destinations, diverse respondents, and undertaking comparative policy analysis across different regions. Such extensions would further enrich the understanding of how language, tourism, and policy interact within Malaysia's evolving tourism landscape.

5.6 Recommendations

The findings of this study provide meaningful insights into the relationship between language policy and actual practices within the LL of tourist sites in Perak, as well as the public's perceptions of the signs in tourist areas. Based on the findings, several recommendations are proposed to guide policy makers, tourism authorities, advertisers or sign creators, as well as academia and future researchers.

Firstly, it is recommended that policy makers and local authorities take more proactive actions in enforcing existing sign regulations, especially regarding the prominence of BM. As discussed earlier, the actual implementation shows that inconsistencies were still present, which the use of BM on signs has not been fully adhered, especially by the private sectors. Although in some multilingual signs BM seemed to be given priority in terms of placement, the language was often visually overshadowed using bigger font size for English. There were few instances where signs without BM were detected in the LL of the survey areas. Therefore, to ensure compliance, local authorities should take serious note on this by strengthening their enforcement mechanism and revise policy documents to include more detailed guidelines on what constitutes 'prominence' in terms of placement, font size, and colour. Clear illustrative design templates with technical specifications should be provided to reduce ambiguity and prevent manipulation by sign creators. Furthermore, stronger enforcement measures, such as increased fine rates or stricter permit issuance protocols, could also be considered to enhance compliance in LL construction.

This study also highlights the need for a more inclusive approach to multilingual signs, especially in tourist-centric areas. Public responses clearly indicate a preference for BM-English multilingual signs, which reflects Malaysia's bilingual realities. However, the inclusion of other local languages, such as Chinese and Tamil, remains equally significant, as these languages represent Malaysia's multicultural identity and cater to specific ethnolinguistic communities. Previous studies of Malaysia's LL consistently highlight that the visibility of these local languages in public spaces functions as a marker of cultural belonging, identity negotiation, and social inclusivity (Jiao & Singh, 2024; Manan et al., 2015). Wang and Xu (2018) further claimed that this visibility allows ethnolinguistic communities to assert their presence and negotiate their identities within the broader national framework. Therefore, local authorities, tourism stakeholders, as well as private sectors should play their part by improving the current LL as this provides direction towards inclusivity as well as developing tourist-friendly public spaces.

Furthermore, the policy has permitted the inclusion of other languages, as long as BM maintains its visual salience, and this flexibility should be utilised to promote greater inclusivity in tourist spaces. This study also encourages greater collaboration between policy makers and sign creators, including private individuals, businesses and

advertisers. Conducting workshops, campaigns, or training sessions could help bridge the gap between policy enforcement and actual practices. With these initiatives, it would enable sign creators to better understand not only on the policy framework but also promote awareness on constructing inclusive signs that meets tourists' preferences and needs.

Another recommendation from this study applies to the field of education, where these empirical findings and data can be meaningfully integrated into language teaching and curriculum design. Specifically, the 1,039 signs documented across Pulau Pangkor, Lost World of Tambun, and Teluk Batik provide authentic, locally grounded materials that educators in English language teaching, sociolinguistics, tourism communication, and cultural studies can use directly in the classroom. For instance, the policy-practice gap identified in RQ3, can serve as a case study for discussions on language policy, power relations, and multilingualism in public spaces. Similarly, the 'required code' versus 'preferred code' distinction developed from the RQ2 analysis offers a conceptual tool that learners can apply when critically analysing multilingual signs in their own environments. The site-specific differences across the three tourist sites, from the BM-dominant government signage of Teluk Batik to the English-dominant corporate branding of Lost World of Tambun illustrate how governance structures and commercial motivations shape linguistic choices in real public spaces, providing rich, contextualised examples for classroom discussion and analysis. As suggested by Shohamy and Waksman (2009), incorporating LL into the classroom can assist learners in developing critical language awareness and in understanding linguistic diversity and the varied roles of languages within multilingual contexts. More recent studies further confirm that LL is a powerful tool for fostering critical thinking and learner agency (Wangdi & Savski, 2023) and bridging academic learning with real-world sociolinguistic issues (Delmas et al., 2025). Therefore, integrating the specific findings and data of this study into classroom learning benefits both educators and learners by making language learning more contextually grounded and reflective of Malaysia's multilingual realities.

This study also recommends several directions for future research. One critical area that needs further attention involves distinguishing whether the visibility of BM in public signs represents a genuinely 'preferred code' or merely a 'required code' (to fulfil compliance purpose). This aspect is important to be looked into, as the visual

prominence of a language (through placement, font size, or colour) does not always reflect the actual preference and motives, especially in multilingual context (Gorter & Cenoz, 2023). Further investigation is also warranted into the underlying motives or reasons behind non-compliance among private sectors, which could be due to other factors. It is likely that different sites may have different reasons for the non-adherence as there are varying factors that influence the construction of sign.

Expanding the geographical and demographic scope of research would further enrich understanding of Malaysia's LL. Comparative cross-state studies, rural tourist destinations, and greater representation of international visitors could reveal variations that were beyond the scope of the current study. Conducting longitudinal or diachronic studies would further enable researchers to trace shifts in language use and sign practices, offering insights into the dynamic evolution of LL, particularly in tourism context. Another valuable direction for future LL research would be to include the role of non-textual features such as imagery, colour, typography and iconography which worth to be investigated further to see how meaning is constructed visually alongside language(s). Such elements would add depth to the current findings and reveal new patterns of LL adaptation. Incorporating these areas would provide a more comprehensive understanding and underscores the need for continued, collaborative, and multifaceted LL studies, specifically within Malaysia's linguistic environment.

Overall, the recommendations proposed in this study call for a more balanced and inclusive approach to developing Malaysia's LL, one that strengthens policy enforcement, promotes multilingual inclusivity, and integrates LL research into education and public awareness. These efforts should be supported through closer collaboration between policy makers, tourism authorities, stakeholders, and sign creators to ensure that LL remains consistent with regulatory standards while reflecting the inclusivity and communicative needs of the tourism sector. Moreover, future research is also encouraged to further examine the sociocultural, visual, and policy dimensions of the LL to inform more effective and context-specific practices, within Malaysia's multilingual environment. Such efforts will allow future work to build upon, refine, and critically engage with the conclusion presented in this study, while also contributing meaningfully to the ongoing development of LL field.

5.7 Conclusion and Contributions of the Study

The present study explored the dynamics of the LL across selected tourist sites in Perak, Malaysia, by investigating the relationship between the language policy set for outdoor signs and its actual implementation. It also examined the public's perceptions and preferences of language(s) used on signs in tourist spaces. Several conclusions emerged from this study, which interpreted through the lens of Wang's (2015) guiding questions; how languages are used and regulated, what contributes to the formation of LL, and how people respond to the multilingual environments.

A critical aspect of how languages are used and regulated in the LL involves analysing the distinction between government and private signs. The findings confirm that the signs from the private sectors dominate the LL of the selected tourist sites, specifically in Pulau Pangkor and Lost World of Tambun. Although the government sectors do have their share in the public space, the number is much smaller than the private sectors. This trend is expected, given the commercial nature of tourist destinations, where private sectors play a more active role in shaping the LL to attract and accommodate diverse visitors (Lee & Lee, 2025; Mubarok et al., 2024; Wang & Liang, 2024). The language(s) displayed on signs by the authorships also show relation to the targeted readers. Most government signs in the survey areas displayed BM monolingual, which are clearly intended for Malaysians. Whereas private signs, particularly in Lost World of Tambun displays a strong preference for English, reflecting a deliberate orientation towards a wider group of audience. This pattern aligns with previous LL studies in tourist spaces, which consistently find that private signs are more prevalent than government signs, with English being the preferred language (Beh, 2017; Lu et al., 2020; Purnamasari et al., 2024; Wang & Liang, 2024).

It was also noticed from the findings that the two main authorships (government and private sectors) demonstrate distinct patterns in terms of type and function, code preference (e.g., order of placement, font size), and text composition. These features significantly influence their degree of compliance with the stipulated language policy for outdoor sign and its implementation in actual practice. Most government signs function to convey information that involves public announcement and government campaigns, awareness, regulatory, warning and prohibition, whereas private signs are more towards promoting products or services.

The findings of the study revealed that while some sites such as Pulau Pangkor and Teluk Batik generally adhered to the stipulated policy, which BM was prioritised in both placement and font size by both authorships, the LL of the Lost World of Tambun deviated significantly from the policy. Most of the signs in Lost World of Tambun were constructed by the private sectors which often prioritised English in terms of placement, and font size. Similar inconsistencies were also found in the other two survey sites; however, it was less prominent compared to the Lost World of Tambun. This instance still signifies a degree of non-adherence to the stipulated language policy. In this case, sign creators could be seen as violating or manipulating the policy in terms of text placement, font size, as well as visual appearance, including colour used for the texts where prominence was mostly given to English than the national language. Such practices can be understood as forms of bottom-up resistance and manipulation of official language policy, a phenomenon documented in previous LL studies (Hult, 2014; Sakhiyya & Martin-Anatias, 2020; Shohamy, 2006).

The prevalence of English in private signs reflects a strategic effort to accommodate the linguistic needs and expectations of diverse audience, specifically in touristic areas. As An and Zhang (2025) argue, most language used in commercial sign is often commodified and selected not for local authenticity but for its economic value. In the context of this study, English emerges not only as a communicative tool but also plays multiple roles within the LL displayed. It promotes economic activities, project a global image, and support tourism-related commerce. The widespread use of English thus reflects a high level of assimilation and a strong orientation towards international accessibility and commercial pragmatism.

Apart from the growing number of English signs, this study identified an emerging trend in the increasing visibility of Chinese on private signs, especially in the Lost World of Tambun. The inclusion of Chinese can be attributed to the significant influx of Chinese-speaking tourists as well as the longstanding socio-cultural presence of the Chinese community in which they are known to be the second largest race in Malaysia. This clearly shows that the use of language on the signs demonstrates relation to the targeted sign readers. The findings also revealed the emergence of foreign languages like Arabic, Italian, and Latin on some multilingual signs in the selected survey areas. The inclusion of foreign languages is believed to be related to the fact that sign creators are attempting to attract tourists from those countries.

It could be concluded from the findings that in coming up with a sign, target readers or target market would have significant influence on the sign writers when constructing a sign. Furthermore, the inclusion of foreign languages typically appears as translation of BM or English text and likely intended to attract visitors from specific group as well as it could be intended for Malaysians. This supports Edelman's (2010) contention that LL does not only reflect indigenous language presence but also displaying foreign languages which serve as a symbolic function – indexing global connectivity, prestige, and cultural accessibility. Therefore, the emergence or inclusion of foreign languages in the LL of the selected tourist sites shows a wider target of sign readers. In terms of language use within the multilingual text compositions, BM and English translations were the most frequently used. Hence, it could be concluded that this study proved that despite the official emphasis on BM, English holds a parallel functional role in public signs, particularly in tourist spaces. This reflects a pragmatic approach among sign creators, who appear to prioritise communicative accessibility for both local and international visitors.

In response to Wang's (2015) second guiding question on what contributes to the formation of LL, this study identifies three influencing factors that shape the language visibility which are socio-political, economic, and cultural. These factors not only account for the diversity observed across the survey sites but also help explain the inequalities of different representation of language used in the selected tourist sites. Socio-political factor is most evident in the dominance of BM in Pulau Pangkor and Teluk Batik, particularly in government-issued sign. This reflects policy compliance with the national language policy which mandate the use of BM as the primary and most prominent language to be used in public space. The prioritisation of BM through placement and font size serves not only a regulatory function but also symbolically reinforces national identity and political unity. The strong enforcement of national language signals the government's effort to maintain BM as the linguistic anchor in official public communication. In this regard, the findings support Shohamy's (2006) argument that language visibility in public space reflects underlying power relations, where dominant languages index institutional authority and sociopolitical control.

Economic factor is clearly reflected in the preference for English, particularly among private sign creators. In many cases, English is not only valued for its communicative efficiency but also perceived to attract diverse visitors. Recent studies

have similarly observed how English is often used in tourist signage to enhance market visibility and consumer accessibility, reinforcing its role as a tool of economic outreach (Kholifah et al., 2021; Kimambo & Mdukula, 2024; Wang & Gao, 2025). The presence of English in the LL thus serves both instrumental and symbolic roles, functioning as a global lingua franca as well as a marker of modernity, prestige, and economic value (Shang, 2024; Zeng & Yang, 2024). This dual role is particularly evident in multilingual tourist settings, in which English functions as a semiotic resource that signals a welcoming stance towards international visitors and reflects aspirations towards global tourism landscape. The findings from this study align with this perspective, showing that English is not merely a tool for communication but is ideologically charged and embedded within broader narratives of globalisation and economic prestige.

Cultural factor also appears to influence the inclusion of local languages such as Chinese and Tamil. Their presence in public signs reflects an effort to acknowledge Malaysia's multilingual composition and social diversity. In some cases, these languages also serve practical purposes, for instance in catering to specific tourist demographics (e.g., Mandarin-speaking visitors from China). Even though these languages often appear in less dominant positions compared to BM or English, the disparity still reflects the implicit linguistic hierarchies within public space, where certain languages are granted greater visibility than others. The way languages are positioned or displayed on signs also contribute to how associated cultural identities are perceived and acknowledged. Previous studies have noted similar tendencies in tourist spaces, where English often receive greater prominence, while demoting minority or other local languages (Artawa et al., 2023; Lu et al., 2020; Purnamasari et al., 2024). This pattern reflects an ongoing tension that leads to linguistic inequality, where some cultural identities are visibly recognised, whereas others remain comparatively marginal within the visual landscape.

In the Malaysian context, although national language policy allows the inclusion of other languages alongside with BM, its practical implementation, especially in the tourism context, appears fragmented and heavily influenced by commercial interests. The marginalisation of Tamil, despite being one of Malaysia's official vernacular languages, illustrates how certain ethnolinguistic communities remain underrepresented in the LL of public spaces (Jiao & Singh, 2024; Wang & Xu, 2018). This finding resonates with Shohamy's (2006) view that language use in public space is never neutral

but ideologically loaded and often shaped by underlying power relations, economic priorities, and sociopolitical contestations. All these three factors demonstrate that the LL is not just a random collection of signs but a structured reflection of Malaysia's socio-political priorities, economic imperatives, and cultural composition. Understanding how these factors intersect is essential in explaining the unequal distribution and prominence of languages in public spaces.

Another significant conclusion that can be drawn from this study is on the limited presence of multilingual signs across the selected survey sites. Even though BM remains essential as the preferred code in most of the sites and some prefer to display English, it is important to maintain transparency and inclusivity in multilingual signs, especially in tourist spaces. This resonates with the public's perceptions, which majority preferred BM-English combinations, thereby directly addressing Wang's (2015) third guiding question on how people respond to the multilingual environment. Furthermore, it also has led this study to notify a clear discrepancy between public expectations and actual practices of the survey areas. This mismatch reflects a perception-practice gap that may hinder the communicative effectiveness and inclusivity of public signs in tourism context.

The findings further conclude that BM and English hold equal prominence among Malaysians, compared to other languages spoken such as Chinese and Tamil, which these local languages are marginalised despite their cultural significance and demographic relevance. However, the Advertisement By-Laws (2013), as enforced by the Manjung Municipal Council (MPM) and Ipoh City Council (MBI), permit the inclusion of multiple languages, provided that BM retains visual prominence in terms of placement, font size and colour. Thus, the observed discrepancies between policy, practice, and public expectations can be ameliorated by adopting a more inclusive and dynamic approach to LL construction that balances policy adherence with multilingual representation.

The main contribution of this study lies in its comprehensive and multifaceted investigation of the LL in the selected tourist sites in Perak. Through this investigation, it provides policy makers and local authorities with a detailed overview of what is actually being practiced in tourist spaces. Although official language policy has been clearly laid out, non-compliance with the policy, specifically from the private sectors were still evident. Such defiance was clearly visible in the linguistic representation of

the signage in the selected tourist sites. This, in turn, would shed some light on the misunderstanding or manipulation of the current language policy set for outdoor signs. This study also identified the factors or reasons behind the non-compliance, which have been significant practical implications for both policy makers as well as sign creators. These insights can help bridge the gap between the two parties (e.g., policy makers/authorities and sign creators), highlighting areas that require improvement to ensure the LL is inclusive, communicatively effective, and aligned with the stipulated policies.

Furthermore, the data obtained from this study could also be used as a valuable reference for authorities should they consider revising the existing policies or formulating new policies or guidelines regarding language use, specifically tailored to tourism sector. By presenting the current and context-specific status quo of the LL of Malaysian tourism landscape, the study contributes meaningfully to the LL field by offering a clear mechanism that may help clarify and improve existing policies and practices. It is especially relevant for governing bodies, local or municipal councils, tourism authorities, sign creators, and the public, as each of them plays a role in shaping the visibility and vitality of LL in Malaysia's tourism landscape.

The Tourist Signage Multilingual Guideline (TSMG) was developed inductively and iteratively based on four sources: the empirical findings of this study, relevant LL and tourism literature, the policy documents examined in RQ3, and the insights gathered from sign creators and enforcement officers during the semi-structured interviews. No external stakeholder consultation beyond the interview participants was conducted within the scope of this study, and the guideline therefore represents a research-informed proposal rather than a formally validated policy instrument. Stakeholder validation involving local councils, tourism authorities, and sign creators is recommended as a necessary next step before formal adoption.

To improve the implementation of language policy in tourist signage, this study proposes a practical and context-specific guideline known as the Tourist Signage Multilingual Guideline (TSMG). Although existing policies allow for multilingual displays, they often lack clear or specific operational guidelines tailored to the tourism context. The proposed guideline addresses this gap by providing practical direction that aligns policy requirements with the communicative needs of diverse visitors.

The need for such guideline emerged from the study's findings that revealed inconsistencies in actual practices, limited multilingual representation, lacking visual appeal and cultural representation in signage. Although translation accuracy and digital integration were not explicitly highlighted as issues in the findings, their inclusion in the proposed guideline responds to identifiable policy gaps and insights from relevant literature on LL and tourism (e.g., Algryani, 2021b; Al-Sofi, 2024). In this sense, the guideline addresses these gaps to ensure that signage practices are not only compliant but also communicatively effective and inclusive.

The guideline is structured based on four main dimensions: linguistic, visual, cultural and user experiential, and governance. These dimensions address language hierarchy and accuracy, design clarity and legibility, cultural representation and user engagement, as well as monitoring mechanisms. Rather than serving merely as a compliance checklist, the guideline integrates regulatory compliance with communicative effectiveness and visitors' experience within Malaysia's multilingual tourism landscape. By extending beyond a general policy standard, the TSMG incorporates elements such as digital augmentation, inclusive communication standards, and cultural representation. These are aspects that are currently undervalued in existing outdoor signage regulations. It may also offer insights for other multilingual contexts seeking to align policy adherence with sociolinguistic diversity and tourism demands. The detailed structure of the TSMG is provided in Appendix 13.

With all these contributions, this study aspires to enrich not only scholarly understanding but also practical development of Malaysia's LL. It reaffirms that LLs are more than mere aesthetic or functional components of public spaces, as they actively shape how individuals experience place, identity, and belonging. The study highlights the need for a more balanced and participatory approach to LL construction that recognises the interplay between policy, economic priorities, and the multilingual realities of communities. In doing so, the contribution extends beyond academic discourse, offering meaningful implications for how language is used, perceived, and valued in Malaysia's culturally rich, tourism-driven context.

In sum, the LL of Perak's tourist sites reflect more than just textual form of signs; it embodies the narratives that reflects the sites' rich heritage, community values, power relations, social positioning, and ongoing negotiations of visibility. Ultimately, this study invites all who encounter these spaces including scholars, authorities,

stakeholders, residents, and visitors to view public signs not as static markers but as ongoing dialogues that continue to tell the evolving story of Malaysia's diversity, unity, and collective identity.

5.8 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter summarised the study's key findings, implications, and limitations. It also outlined recommendations and contributions aimed at enhancing policy enforcement, promoting inclusivity, and strengthening the role of LL research in education and future studies. Overall, the chapter underscores the importance of adopting a balanced and inclusive approach to the development of Malaysia's LL.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

Questionnaire

A SURVEY ON: A LINGUISTIC LANDSCAPE OF TOURIST SPACES: A STUDY OF SIGNS IN PERAK, MALAYSIA.

Dear Sir / Madam,

I am a PhD (Applied Linguistic) student at Academy of Language Studies, Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM). I am conducting a study on "A Linguistic Landscape of Tourist Spaces: A Study of Signs in Perak, Malaysia". This questionnaire will be used for my study. The objective of this questionnaire is to find out the public's perceptions on signage available in three different tourist sites, which are Pulau Pangkor, Lost World of Tambun and Teluk Batik. This questionnaire will only take a few minutes for you to answer. Your answers will **only** be used for researcher's study purposes. Your cooperation is highly appreciated. Thank you for your time and cooperation.

Tuan / Puan,

Saya merupakan pelajar ijazah kedoktoran dari Fakulti Akademi Pengajian Bahasa, UiTM. Saya sedang menjalankan kajian tentang 'Landskap Linguistik di Tempat Pelancongan: Kajian Papan Tanda Awam di Perak, Malaysia'. Borang kaji selidik ini akan digunakan dalam kajian saya dan objektifnya adalah untuk mengenal pasti pandangan orang ramai tentang papan tanda awam yang ada di sekitar Pulau Pangkor, Lost World of Tambun dan juga Teluk Batik, Perak. Jawapan yang diberikan dalam borang kaji selidik ini hanya akan digunakan untuk tujuan kajian semata-mata.

Segala kerjasama tuan / puan amat saya hargai dan saya dahului dengan ucapan terima kasih.

Nurul Ain Hasni

PhD (Language) Candidate
Academy of Language Studies
Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM)

UNIVERSITI TEKNOLOGI MARA
Pejabat
Timbalan Naib Canselor
(Penyelidikan dan Inovasi)

Reference : 600-TNCPI(5/1/6)
Our reference : REC/03/2022 (PG/MR/48)
Date : 22 March 2022

Dr Aini Andria Shirin binti Anuarudin
(Nurul Ain binti Hasni - 2019108633)
Akademi Pengajian Bahasa
Universiti Teknologi MARA
40450 Shah Alam,
SELANGOR

Dear Dr Aini Andria,

APPROVAL LETTER - UiTM RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

Thank you for submitting your research proposal to the Research Ethics Committee (REC). After considering your application, the Committee approved your proposal titled "A Linguistic Landscape of Tourist Spaces: A Study of Signs in Perak, Malaysia" at Pulau Pangkor, Lost World of Tambun and Teluk Batik, Perak.

Details of the approval are as follows:

Ref. number:	REC/03/2022 (PG/MR/48)
Approval Period:	22 March 2022 until 31 July 2023
Authorised personnel:	1. Dr Aini Andria Shirin binti Anuarudin 2. Nurul Ain binti Hasni

The UiTM Research Ethics Committee operates in accordance to the ICH Good Clinical Practice Guidelines, Malaysian Good Clinical Practice Guidelines and the Declaration of Helsinki. The approval of this project is conditional upon your continuing compliance with these guidelines and declaration.

We draw to your attention the requirement that a report on this research, must be submitted every 12 months from the date of the approval or on the completion of the project, whichever occurs first. Failure to submit reports will result in withdrawal of consent for the project to proceed. Amendments, if any, to the study documents are to be submitted to the REC for approval.

If you require further information, please contact the REC Secretariat at 03-55448069/03-55442794 or email at recsecretariat@uitm.edu.my.

Yours sincerely,

EMERITUS PROFESSOR DATO' DR RAYMOND AZMAN ALI
Chairman
UiTM Research Ethics Committee

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Questionnaire

Section A: Background Information/ Latar belakang

Please put a tick (√) for your response. / Sila tandakan (√) bagi pilihan anda.

1. Gender/ *Jantina*

□ Male/ Lelaki

□ Female/ Perempuan

2. Age/ Umur

□ 20-30 □ 31-43

□ 44-56 □ above 56/ 56 ke atas

3. Race/ Bangsa

□ Malay / Melayu

□ Chinese / Cina

□ Indian / India

□ Other/ Lain-lain (Please state / *sila nyatakan*: _____)

4. Are you a tourist? *Adakah anda seorang pelancong*?

□ Yes, I'm a foreign tourist/ *Ya, saya pelancong luar*

□ Yes, Im a local tourist/ *Ya, saya pelancong tempatan*

□ No/ *Tidak*

5. Where do you live? / Dimanakah *tempat tinggal anda*?

_____

6. What is your occupation? / Apakah *pekerjaan anda?*

_____

7. Level of education / *Tahap Pendidikan*:

□SPM □STPM

□Diploma □Degree

□Masters □ PhD

□ Other / Lain-lain (Please state / *Sila nyatakan*: _____)

8. What is your mother tongue? / *Apakah bahasa ibunda anda*?

□ Bahasa Melayu (BM)

□ English / Bah. Inggeris

□ Chinese / Bah. Cina

□ Tamil / Bah. Tamil

□ Other/ Lain-lain (Please state / *sila nyatakan*: _____)

9. Are you fluent in any other language(s) besides your mother tongue? / *Adakah anda fasih dalam bahasa lain selain bahasa ibunda anda?*

□ Yes / Ya (Please state / *Sila nyatakan*: _____)

□ No / Tidak

10. Have you been to these places in Perak before? You may tick your answer(s) based on the places that you have been to. (You may tick more than one option). /Pernahkah anda melawat tempat-tempat tersebut di Perak sebelum ini? Anda boleh tandakan jawapan mengikut tempat yang telah dilawati. (*Anda boleh tandakan lebih dari satu pilihan*).

□ Pulau Pangkor □ Lost World of Tambun

□ Teluk Batik □ Never/ Tidak pernah

Section B: Sign Preference in Tourist Areas/ *Keutamaan Papan Tanda Awam di Kawasan Pelancongan*

Please answer the following questions. / *Sila jawab soalan-soalan berikut.*

1. Do you think public signs are important in tourist sites? / *Adakah anda rasa papan tanda awam penting di tempat-tempat pelancongan?*

□ Yes/ *Ya* □ No/ *Tidak* □ Sometimes/ *Kadang-kadang*

Question 2 *is based on the images below. Please rate the question using the scale given* (1= not at all, 5= very much). *Soalan 2 adalah berdasarkan gambar-gambar di bawah. Sila nilaikan soalan menggunakan skala yang diberikan (1= tidak sama sekali, 5=Sangat).*

Example of multilingual sign in Lost World of Tambun



Example of multilingual sign in Teluk Batik



Example of multilingual sign in Pulau Pangkor



2. Do the multilingual signs on the tourist sites attract your attention when travelling? / *Adakah papan tanda pelbagai bahasa di tempat pelancongan menarik perhatian anda ketika melancong?*

Not at all/ *Tidak sama sekali* 1 2 3 4 5 Very much/ *Sangat*

3. Which language(s) do you think is most often used on public signs of Malaysia tourist sites? You may tick more than one. / *Bahasa yang manakah anda fikir paling kerap digunakan pada papan tanda awam di tempat pelancongan di Malaysia*? *Anda boleh tandakan lebih daripada satu pilihan.*

□ BM □ English □ BM & English □ Chinese □ Tamil
□ Other / Lain-lain (Please state / *Sila nyatakan*: _____)

4. Which language(s) do you think are important for Malaysia tourist sites? / *Bahasa yang manakah anda rasa penting untuk dipamerkan pada tempat pelancongan di Malaysia?*

□ BM □ English □ BM & English □ Chinese □ Tamil
□ Other / Lain-lain (Please state / *Sila nyatakan*: _____)

5. i. Based on your observation or experience, what is your overall opinion about the multilingual signs displayed on Malaysia tourist sites? / *Apakah pendapat anda tentang papan tanda awam yang terdiri daripada pelbagai bahasa yang dipaparkan di tempat pelancongan di Malaysia?*

Very bad / *Sangat teruk* 1 2 3 4 5 Very good / *Sangat baik*

ii. Please provide your reason(s) for your answer in **Question 5 (i)**. / *Sila berikan alasan anda untuk jawapan di* ***Soalan 5(i)***.

_____

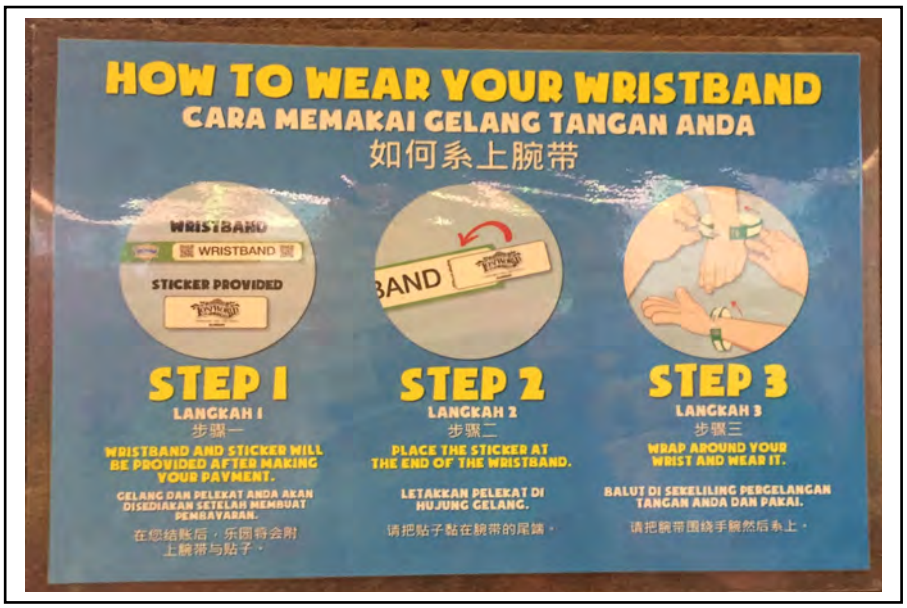
_____

Questions 6 – 8 are based on the pictures below. / ***Soalan 6 – 8*** *adalah berdasarkan gambar-gambar di bawah.*

Public sign 1 (Pulau Pangkor)



Public sign 2 (Lost World of Tambun)



Public sign 3 (Teluk Batik)



6. Referring to the public signs above, did you read all the words? / *Berdasarkan ketiga-tiga papan iklan di atas, adakah anda membaca semua perkataan yang terdapat di dalamnya?*

	Sign 1	Sign 2	Sign 3
a. Yes, I read all the words. / *Ya, saya membaca semua perkataan.*			
b. No, I read selectively. / *Tidak, saya memilih sesetengah perkataan sahaja*.			

i. Which language did you read first? Please put a tick (/) for your response. / *Bahasa yang manakah anda baca dahulu? Sila tandakan (/) pada pilihan anda.*

Public Sign 1- □ Bahasa Malaysia (BM) □ English
Public Sign 2- □ Bahasa Malaysia (BM) □ English □ Chinese/ B.Cina
Public Sign 3- □ Bahasa Malaysia (BM) □ Arabic

ii. Please tick your reason(s) for your answer in **Question 6 (i).** You may tick more than one. / *Sila tandakan (/) untuk jawapan pada **Soalan 6 (i)**. Anda boleh tandakan lebih daripada satu pilihan.*

	Sign 1	Sign 2	Sign 3
a. Because the font size is bigger. / *Saiz hurufnya lebih besar.*			
b. Because I understand the language better. / *Saya lebih memahami bahasa tersebut*			

c. Because the language appears on the first line. / *Bahasa tersebut berada pada barisan yang pertama*.			
ause the colours used are attractive. / *Penggunaan warna yang menarik.*			

7 i. What do you look at ***first*** when looking at the sign? Please put a tick for your response. / *Apakah yang anda lihat* ***terlebih dahulu*** *pada sesuatu papan tanda? Sila tandakan (/) untuk pilihan anda.*

	Sign 1	Sign 2	Sign 3
a. Words / *Perkataan*			
b. Visual content (e.g., picture, colour) / *Kandungan visual (cth gambar, warna)*			
c. Both (words and visual content) at the same time / *Kedua-duanya (perkataan & visual) pada masa yang sama.*			

ii. Please tick your reason(s) for your answer in no **7(i)**. You may tick more than one. / *Sila tandakan (/) untuk jawapan pada soalan no* ***7(i)****. Anda boleh andakan lebih daripada satu pilihan.*

	Sign 1	Sign 2	Sign 3
a. Visual content because it is colourful. / *Kandungan visual yang berwarna-warni.*			
b. Visual content because the picture attracts me. / *Kandungan visual kerana gambarnya yang menarik perhatian.*			

c. Words because I want to know what they are trying to inform. / *Perkataan kerana saya ingin mengetahui apa yang cuba dimaklumkan.*			
d. Words because they are catchy. / *Penggunaan perkataan yang menarik.*			
e. Both (visual and words) because I want to know whether or not the visual displayed and the wordings are consistent. / *Kedua-duanya (visual dan perkataan) kerana saya ingin mengetahui sama ada visual yang dipaparkan selaras dengan ayat dalam iklan.*			
f. Other reason(s). Please state your answer in the space provided below. / *Sebab lain. Nyatakan jawapan anda di ruangan yang disediakan dibawah.*			

If you have ticked **'Other reason (s)'** for **Question 7 (ii)**, please state your answer here: / *Sekiranya anda telah tandakan **'Lain-lain'** pada **Soalan 7 (ii)**, nyatakan jawapan anda di sini:*

_____

_____

_____

8. In your opinion, what is the most important factor that would attract you when looking at public signs? Please rank your choice (1= most important, 5= least important). / *Pada pendapat anda, apakah faktor yang paling menarik perhatian anda apabila melihat papan tanda awam? Sila susun pilihan anda mengikut kepentingan. (1 = paling penting, 5 = paling tidak penting).*

a. Arrangement of words on a billboard / *Susunan perkataan* _____

b. Types of font used / *Jenis fon atau huruf yang digunakan* _____

c. Font size used / *Saiz fon atau huruf yang digunakan* _____

d. Visuals (e.g., pictures, photos) / Visual (cth; gambar, foto dsb) _____

e. Colours / *Warna* ____

9 i. Do you believe that direct translation on public signs will improve your understanding of the message? Please circle your choice. / *Adakah anda berpendapat bahawa terjemahan pada papan tanda awam akan meningkatkan pemahaman anda tentang mesej tersebut*? *Sila bulatkan pilihan anda.*

a. Yes, because it will help readers to understand the message better. / *Ya, kerana terjemahan tersebut akan membantu pembaca untuk lebih memahami mesej yang cuba disampaikan*.

b. No, because it is often simpler to comprehend just by looking at the visual appearance (e.g., pictures) on signs. / *Tidak, kerana lebih mudah difahami hanya dengan melihat penampilan visual yang disediakan (cth; gambar) pada papan tanda.*

c. No, because the translated version might often convey a different meaning. / *Tidak, kerana versi terjemahan mungkin sering membawa makna yang berbeza.*

ii. Is there any other reason(s) that you want to add pertaining to **Question 9 (i)** above? */ ii. Adakah terdapat sebab lain yang ingin anda tambahkan berkaitan dengan* ***Soalan 9 (i)*** *di atas?*

_____

_____

_____

10. The statement below is related to the ***regulation of language policy*** on public signs. According to the outdoor advertisement policy, every advertisement shall be in BM whether solely in BM or together with any other language. If it is used with other language(s), the BM wordings must be in bigger font size. / *Pernyataan di bawah adalah berkaitan dengan* ***peraturan dasar bahasa*** *mengenai papan tanda awam.*

Berdasarkan polisi papan iklan, setiap iklan hendaklah dalam BM sama ada dalam BM semata mata atau bersama-sama dengan mana-mana bahasa lain. Jika terdapat penggunaan bahasa lain bersama, maka saiz huruf BM mestilah lebih besar.

From your observation, do public signs (e.g., advertisement billboards) in the tourist sites abide by this regulation? Please tick your answer. / *Daripada pemerhatian anda, adakah papan tanda awam (cth. papan iklan) di tempat-tempat pelancongan mematuhi polisi tersebut? Sila tanda pada pilihan anda.*

□ Mostly / *Kebanyakan*
□ No / *Tidak*
□ Unsure/ *Tidak pasti*

11. How frequent do you see the following language(s) on the public signs? Please put a tick for your response. / *Berapa kerapkah anda melihat penggunaan bahasa berikut pada papan tanda awam? Sila tanda pilihan anda.*

1- Never / *tidak pernah* 2 - Rarely / *jarang*
3- Sometimes / *kadangkala* 4 - Always / *selalu*

	1	**2**	**3**	**4**
i. Bahasa Malaysia (BM) only / *BM sahaja*				
ii. English only / *Bahasa Inggeris sahaja*				
iii. Chinese only / *Bahasa Cina sahaja*				
v. Arabic only/ *Bahasa Arab sahaja*				
vi. BM & English only / *BM & Bah. Inggeris sahaja*				
vii. BM, English & Chinese only / *BM, Bah. Cina & Bah. Inggeris sahaja*				
viii. BM & Chinese only / *BM & Bahasa Cina sahaja*				
ix. Eng & Chinese only / Bah.Inggeris *& Bahasa Cina sahaja*				

x. BM & Tamil only / *BM & Bahasa Tamil sahaja*				
xi. BM, Tamil & English only / *BM, Bah. Tamil & Bah. Inggeris sahaja*				
xii. BM & other foreign language(s) (not English, Chinese or Tamil) / *BM & bahasa asing (selain dari Bah. Inggeris, Cina atau Tamil)* * Please state the other language / *sila nyatakan:*				
xiii. English & other foreign language(s) / *Bah. Inggeris & bahasa asing* * Please state the other language / *sila nyatakan:*				

Section C: Language and Visual Content Preferences/ *Keutamaan Bahasa dan Kandungan Visual*

12. The statements below are related to **language preference** on public signs in tourist areas. Please choose the answer that best reflects your preference. / *Pernyataan berikut adalah berkaitan dengan **keutamaan pilihan bahasa** yang digunakan pada papan tanda awam. Sila tandakan jawapan yang menggambarkan pilihan anda.*

□ I prefer public signs to be in BM only. / *Saya lebih suka papan tanda awam dalam BM sahaja.*

□ I prefer public signs to be in English only. / *Saya lebih suka papan tanda awam dalam English sahaja.*

□ I prefer public signs to be in both BM and English. / *Saya lebih suka papan tanda awam dalam BM dan Bahasa Inggeris.*

□ I prefer public signs to be in BM, English and other languages (e.g., Chinese, Tamil, Arabic etc). / *Saya lebih suka papan tanda awam dalam BM, Bahasa Inggeris dan bahasa lain (spt Bah. Cina, Bah. Tamil, Bahasa Arab dll).*

Please state your reason(s) for Question 12. / *Sila nyatakan sebab anda bagi Soalan 12.*

_____

_____

_____

13. Are there any additional opinions or thoughts you would like to share about the language(s) on public signs available in the tourist sites? / *Adakah anda mempunyai sebarang pendapat tambahan yang ingin disampaikan mengenai penggunaan bahasa pada papan tanda awam yang terdapat di tempat pelancongan?*

_____

_____

_____

14. The statements below are related to **visual content** (e.g., colour, picture, font, size) on public signs. Please rate the statement which best reflects your preference. /*Pernyataan berikut adalah berkaitan dengan* ***kandungan visual*** *yang digunakan pada papan tanda awam. Sila tandakan penilaian yang menggambarkan pilihan anda.*

a) I prefer public signs to have more pictures than too many wordings. / *Saya lebih suka papan tanda awam yang mempunyai lebih banyak gambar daripada perkataan.*

□ Yes/ *Ya*

□ No/ *Tidak*

Why? / Kenapa?

_____

_____

_____

b) I prefer public signs wordings to use colourful font(s). / *Saya lebih suka papan tanda awam yang menggunakan huruf yang berwarna-warni*

□ Yes/ *Ya*

□ No/ *Tidak*

Why? / Kenapa?

_____

_____

_____

c) I prefer public signs to use the same font size for all the languages used. / *Saya lebih suka papan tanda awam yang menggunakan saiz huruf yang sama bagi semua bahasa yang digunakan.*

□ Yes/ *Ya*

□ No/ *Tidak*

Why? / Kenapa?

_____

_____

_____

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME

Terima kasih

APPENDIX 2

Interview Questions with Local Authorities

1. Adakah terdapat apa-apa polisi penggunaan bahasa yang telah ditetapkan untuk megiklankan sesuatu papan tanda awam? Adakah polisi tersebut berbeza mengikut jenis-jenis papan tanda awam (cth; papan maklumat, papan arahan, papan peraturan, papan iklan)? Mohon Tuan tolong jelaskan.
Is there any stipulated policy pertaining to language use for public signage in Malaysia? Does the policy differ according to the types of public signage (e.g., informational, directional, regulatory, advertising sign)? Please explain.

2. Apakah prosedur yang berkaitan dengan penggunaan bahasa dalam mengemukakan permohonan untuk memaparkan iklan pada papan tanda awam?
In submitting an application to advertise a public sign, are there certain procedures in relation to the use of language on the signs?

3. Pada pendapat tuan, adakah papan tanda awam di sekitar tempat-tempat pelancongan di Perak, seperti Pulau Pangkor, Teluk Batik dan Lost World of Tambun mematuhi polisi penggunaan bahasa? Mengapa? Mohon Tuan tolong jelaskan.
In your opinion, do you think that public signage in most of the tourist sites in Perak, such as in Pulau Pangkor, Teluk Batik and Lost World of Tambun generally adhere to the stated policies in regard to language? Why or why not? Please explain.

4. Tatacara Pengesahan Bahasa Kebangsaan dalam pengiklanan ada tertera peraturan tentang penggunaan bahasa, susunan perkataan, warna dan juga saiz fon yang harus digunakan pada papan iklan luar. Pada pendapat tuan, diantara agensi-agensi kerajaan (termasuk GLC) dan agensi-agensi swasta, yang manakah lebih mematuhi polisi penggunaan bahasa (seperti susunan perkataan, penonjolan warna dan saiz fon) yang telah ditetapkan pada papan tanda awam? Minta Tuan tolong jelaskan.
To the best of your knowledge, do signs put up by the government sector including the GLCs, or signs put up by the private sector that mostly adhere to the specified policies pertaining to language use and arrangement as stated in the Verification Procedures of National Language in Advertising, (for example in terms of font, colour and arrangement)? Please explain.

5. Pada pendapat tuan, apakah faktor yang mempengaruhi pemilihan bahasa yang digunakan dan juga reka bentuk (seperti sususan perkataan dan warna yang lebih

menonjol) pada papan tanda awam?
In your opinion, what are the factors that influence the choice of language use as well as the design (e.g., word order and prominent colours used) on public signage?

6. Apakah tindakan yang akan diambil sekiranya peraturan atau polisi penggunaan bahasa pada papan tanda awam tidak dipatuhi? Dalam hal ini, siapakah yang bertanggungjawab untuk memantau penggunaan bahasa pada papan tanda awam?
What action will be taken if the rules or policies on the use of language on public signs are not being complied? In this case, who is responsible for monitoring the use of language on public signs?

7. Pada pendapat tuan, apakah sebab-sebab kenapa peraturan ini tidak dipatuhi sepenuhnya oleh sesetengah agensi atau pemilik papan tandan awam*?*
In your opinion, what are the reasons why these regulations are not fully obeyed by some agencies or sign creators?

8. Pada pendapat tuan, adakah dasar atau polisi penggunaan bahasa yang mengutamakan penggunaan Bahasa Malaysia (BM) pada papan tanda awam dapat membantu meningkatkan penggunaan BM?
In your opinion, does the policy or the language policy that prioritizes the use of Bahasa Malaysia (BM) on public signs can help increase the use of BM?

9. Kebiasaanya, papan tanda awam di tempat-tempat pelancongan hanya menggunakan bahasa Inggeris atau digunakan dengan bahasa lain. Apakah pendapat tuan mengenai perkara ini dan mengapakah situasi ini berlaku?
It is common to see public signs in the tourist sites use English only or are used with other languages. What are your thoughts on this and why is it happening?

10. Pada pendapat tuan, jika tiada polisi penggunaan bahasa pada papan tanda awam, adakah penggunaan Bahasa Malaysia masih diberi keutamaan atau sebaliknya?
In your opinion, if there is no implementation of policy on the use of language on public signs, will Bahasa Malaysia still be given priority or vice versa?

APPENDIX 3

Interview Questions with Sign Creators

1. What is your role within the company? (e.g., owner, sales assistant etc.) / *Apakah peranan anda dalam syarikat? (cth: pemilik kedai, pembantu jualan)*

2. What is the meaning of your store's main sign? (e.g., translation, transliteration etc.) / *Apakah maksud tanda utama kedai anda? (cth: terjemahan, transliterasi)*

3. Which languages are used in your store sign? / *Bahasa manakah yang digunakan pada papan tanda kedai anda?*

4. How many language(s) do you normally use when creating a sign? (e.g., Malay, English, Chinese, etc.) / *Berapakah bahasa yang biasa digunakan dalam pembuatan papan tanda? (cth: Bahasa Melayu, Inggeris, Cina, dan lain-lain)*

5. Why did you choose this language(s)? (e.g., for customer's benefit/ wants/needs, tradition, to fit in with other stores, the only language that you know/prefer, symbolic reason, rules etc) / *Mengapakah anda memilih bahasa ini? (cth: untuk keutamaan pelanggan/memenuhi kehendak pelanggan, tradisi, mengikut trend yang sama dengan kedai-kedai lain, satu-satunya bahasa yang anda tahu/ lebih selesa, alasan simbolik, peraturan etc)*

6. What language do you use day-to-day in your business with your customers? (e.g., Malay, English, Chinese, etc.) / *Bahasa apakah yang anda gunakan dengan pelanggan anda? (cth: Bahasa Melayu, Bahasa Inggeris, Cina, dan lain-lain)*

7. What sort of people do you normally serve? (e.g., local, foreigners) / *Siapakah pelanggan anda yang biasa anda layani? (cth: orang tempatan, orang asing)*

8. What do you think of signage that has two or more languages? Do you think by using more than one language can make it easier for readers to get information? Why is that? / *Apa pendapat anda mengenai papan tanda yang mempunyai dua atau lebih bahasa? Adakah anda fikir dengan menggunakan lebih dari satu bahasa dapat memudahkan pembaca mendapatkan maklumat? Kenapa begitu?*

9. How important is the use of multilingual sign in tourist sites? Please explain further. / *Apakah pendapat anda tentang kepentingan penggunaan pelbagai*

bahasa pada papan tanda awam di tempat pelancongan? Tolong jelaskan dengan lebih lanjut.

10. What language do you think is the most important language (prioritised) to be placed on any public signage, specifically for tourist sites? Why that chosen language is important? / *Pada pendapat anda, bahasa manakah yang harus diberi keutamaan untuk diletakkan pada papan tanda umum, khususya di tempat-tempat pelancongan?Kenapa bahasa tersebut penting?*

11. Is there any regulation in making a sign? Are there any certain steps or procedures in making a sign? For example, BM must be placed first, followed by other languages, font size, visual, and colour? Please explain further. / *Adakah terdapat peraturan tertentu dalam penghasilan papan tanda awam? Adakah terdapat langkah-langkah atau prosedur tertentu dalam penghasilan papan tanda awam? Sebagai contoh, BM mesti diletakkan di tempat pertama, diikuti oleh bahasa lain, saiz perkataan, visual, dan warna? Tolong jelaskan dengan lebih lanjut.*

12. How important do you think it is for BM to appear first and be prominently visible on public signs? Please explain. /*Pada pendapat anda, sejauh manakah pentingnya BM dipaparkan terlebih dahulu dan kelihatan jelas pada papan tanda awam? Sila jelaskan.*

13. Do you think that the effectiveness of public signs (in terms of catching the attention of readers) is influenced by the choice of language(s) used? / *Adakah anda fikir keberkesanan papan tanda awam (dari segi menarik perhatian pembaca) dipengaruhi oleh pilihan bahasa yang digunakan?*

14. In your opinion, are there any other aspects (such as word order, font size, visuals, and colours) that influence the effectiveness of public signs? Why are these elements important? Please explain. / *Pada pendapat anda, adakah ada aspek lain (cth seperti reka bentuk, susunan perkataan, gambar, dan warna) yang mempengaruhi keberkesanan papan tanda awam? Mengapa ianya penting? Sila jelaskan.*

15. Do you think direct translation on public signs is important, especially in tourist sites? If yes, why? / *Adakah anda fikir terjemahan langsung pada papan tanda awam adalah penting, terutamanya di kawasan pelancongan? Jika ya, mengapa?*

16. Have you noticed any recent changes in public signs recently? / *Adakah anda perasan sebarang perubahan pada papan tanda awam sejak kebelakangan ini?*

APPENDIX 4

Tatacara Pengesahan Bahasa Kebangsaan dalam Iklan
(Verification Procedures for National Language in Advertisements)



1.0 OBJEKTIF

Tatacara ini bertujuan untuk memastikan pengurusan khidmat pengesahan bahasa kebangsaan dalam iklan dilaksanakan mengikut keperluan pelanggan dan piawai yang ditetapkan.

2.0 SKOP

Tatacara ini diterima pakai oleh Bahagian Pengembangan Bahasa Sektor Swasta, Jabatan Bahasa, Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka Ibu Pejabat dalam pelaksanaan khidmat pengesahan bahasa kebangsaan dalam iklan yang bermula daripada penerimaan iklan hingga proses pengembalian iklan kepada pelanggan.

3.0 DOKUMEN RUJUKAN

3.1 Perlembagaan Persekutuan;

3.2 Akta Bahasa Kebangsaan 1963/67;

3.3 Akta Bahasa Kebangsaan (Pindaan) 1971;

3.4 Akta Bahasa Kebangsaan (Pindaan) 1990;

3.5 Ordinan Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka 1959;

3.6 Akta Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka (Pindaan) 1978;

3.7 Akta Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka (Pindaan dan Peluasan) 1995;

3.8 Undang-undang Kecil Iklan;

3.9 Prosedur Kualiti Pengurusan Kegiatan Khidmat Nasihat Bahasa (DBP/PK/Peng/01);

3.10 Arahan Kerja Pelaksanaan Kegiatan Khidmat Nasihat Bahasa (DBP/AK/PENG/01/01);

3.11 Manual Kualiti (DBP/MK/01);

3.12 PKPA Bil. 2/96: Garis Panduan Menjawab Telefon yang Berkualiti;

3.13 Manual Sistem Khidmat Nasihat Bahasa;

3.14 *Tatabahasa Dewan Edisi Baharu,* 1993;

3.15 *Kamus Dewan Eidisi Ketiga,* 1994;

3.16 *Kamus Inggeris-Melayu Dewan,* 1993;

3.17 *Kamus Inggeris-Melayu Dewan Edisi Ringkas,* 1995;

3.18 *Gaya Dewan Edisi Ketiga,* 1995;

3.19 *Nama Khas dan Iklan, Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka,* 1997;

3.20 Istilah, Glosari, Daftar Kata dan bahan-bahan rujukan kebahasaan yang lain.

4.0 DEFINISI

4.1 Bahasa Kebangsaan

Merujuk Perkara 152, *Perlembagaan Persekutuan,* bahasa kebangsaan ialah bahasa Melayu dan hendaklah ditulis dalam apa-apa tulisan sebagaimana yang diperuntukkan dengan undang-undang oleh Parlimen.

4.2 Sumber Rujukan

Tatabahasa Dewan, Gaya Dewan, Glosari, Istilah, Kamus, Tesaurus, Pakar Rujuk dan Lain-lain.

4.3 Borang Khidmat Nasihat Bahasa (KNB)

Borang standard yang terkandung dalam Arahan Kerja Pelaksanaan Kegiatan Khidmat Nasihat Bahasa MS ISO 9001:2000 mesti dilengkapkan oleh pelanggan yang mendapatkan khidmat pengesahan bahasa kebangsaan dalam iklan. Sila lihat Lampiran 1.

4.4 Cap Pengesahan

Cap getah yang mengandungi logo DBP, nama dan tandatangan Pegawai Perancang Bahasa (PPB) dan kenyataan pengesahan bahasa kebangsaan dalam iklan.

4.5 Cap Pembetulan

Cap getah yang mengandungi logo DBP, nama dan tandatangan Pegawai Perancang Bahasa (PPB) dana kenyataan arahan membetulkan kesalahan bahasa kebangsaan dalam iklan.

4.6 Dokumen Lengkap

Borang KNB dilengkapkan oleh pelanggan dan ilan jelas.

4.7 Dokumen Tidak Lengkap

Borang KNB tidak dilengkapkan oleh pelanggan dan iklan kabur atau tidak jelas.

4.8 Iklan

Visual iklan yang mengandungi teks dan gambar yang dipamerkan pada papan iklan untuk memberitahu orang ramai tentang nama barangan (jenama) dan keluaran.

4.9 Draf Iklan

Tulisan atau lukisan iklan yang dibuat secara kasar.

4.10 Iklan Tidak Bermasalah

Iklan yang menggunakan bahasa kebangsaan yang indah, betul dan sesuai dengan gambar yang dipaparkan dalam iklan.

4.11 Iklan Bermasalah

Iklan yang tidak menggunakan bahasa kebangsaan, salah penggunaan bahasanya dan penggunaan bahasa yang tidak sesuai dengan gambar yang dipaparkan dalam iklan.

4.12 Kelewatan

Proses pengesahan yang bermula daripada penerimaan iklan hingga pengembalian iklan yang mengambil masa melebihi 24 jam, (satu hari bekerja) berdasarkan piagam pelanggan DBP.

4.13 Pangkalan Data

Sistem perekodan iklan.

4.14 Papan Iklan

Tempat pemaparan iklan yang bersaiz lebih daripada laima meter persegi.

4.15 Pelanggan

Syarikat atau agensi pengiklanan yang mendapatkan khidmat pengesahan bahasa kebangsaan dalam iklan daripada Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka.

4.16 Pengagihan

Ketua Bahagian mengagihkan iklan tersebut kepada PPB yang dinamakan.

4.17 Penyemakan

PPB menyemak penggunaan bahasa kebangsaan dalam iklan tersebut. Sekiranya iklan yang dikemukakan bermasalah, PPB mesti menghubungi pelanggan untuk berbincang.

4.18 Pembetulan

PPB menyemak penggunaan bahasa kebangsaan dalam iklan tersebut. Sekiranya iklan yang dikemukakan bermasalah, PPB mesti menghubungi pelanggan untuk berbincang.

4.19 Pengesahan

Perakuan tentang penggunaan bahasa kebangsaan pada iklan dalam bentuk cap pengesahan yang ditandatangani oleh PPB.

4.20 Petugas

Staf yang terlibat dalam proses pengesahan bahasa kebangsaan dalam iklan, iaitu Ketua Bahagian (KB (S54), Pegawai Perancang Bahasa (PPB) (S41) dan Pembantu Tadbir (PT (Perkeranian/Operasi) (N17).

4.21 Rekod

Iklan yang telah disahkan akan direkodkan dalam pangkalan data dan difailkan. Walau bagaimanapun, untuk iklan yang telah disemak tetapi belum disahkan kerana terdapat kesalahan bahasa akan diberi status dalam prosesi dalam Sistem Pangkalan Data.

4.22 Sistem Bahasa Melayu Bersepadu (SBMB)

Sistem yang dibina untuk membantu pengguna bahasa menyelesaikan masalah bahasa dalam talian.

4.23 Tempoh Pengesahan

Tempoh yang ditetapkan untuk mengesahkan iklan ialah satu (1) hari bekerja. Proses ini bermula daripada penerimaan iklan sehingga pengembalian iklan yang telah disahkan kepada pelanggan. Dalam situasi tertentu, dokumen yang bermsalah mengambil masa lebih dari satu (1) hari untuk disemak dan disahkan.

5.0 KUASA DAN TANGGUNGJAWAB

5.1 Ketua Bahagian atau Penanggungjawab (KB)

Petugas yang bertanggungjawab mengagihkan iklan dan memastikan proses pengesahan bahasa kebangsaan dalam iklan berjalan lancar memenuhi keperluan pelanggan.

5.2 Pegawai Perancang Bahasa (PPB)

Petugas yang bertanggungjawab menyemak dan mengambil tindakan terhadap pengesahan bahasa kebangsaan dalam iklan. Beliau juga bertanggungjawab memberikan maklum balas kepada pelanggan tentang iklan tersebut.

5.3 Pembantu Tadbir (PT)

Petugas yang bertanggungjawab merekodkan maklumat iklan, mengembalikan iklan kepada pelanggan dan merekodkannya dalam pangkalan data dan fail.

6.0 IKLAN

6.1 Ciri-ciri Iklan

6.11 Mematuhi garis panduan seperti yang terkandung dalam Undang-undang Kecil Iklan.

6.12 Iklan tersebut mestilah mematuhi akta dan undang-undang yang berkaitan seperti Undang-undang Kecil Iklan (Wilayah Persekutuan) 1982 yang terkandung dalam Akta Kerajaan Tempat 1976 seperti yang berikut:

(1) Sesuatu iklan hendaklah dalam bahasa Malaysia sama ada dengan sendirinya atau bersama-sama bahasa lain (PU (A) 364/85).

(2) Perkataan-perkataan dan huruf-huruf dalam bahasa Malaysia hendaklah diberi keutamaan dalam warnanya dan di sesuatu kedudukan yang lebih jelas daripada perkataan-perkataan atau huruf-huruf atau tulisan-tulisan dalam bahasa lain yang digunakan dan saiznya hendaklah tidak melebihi ukuran yang terdapat dalam bahasa Malaysia (PU (A) 364/85).

(3) Seseorang tidak boleh mempamerkan atau menyebabkan atau membenarkan dipamerkan mana-mana iklan yang tidak mematuhi paragraf (1) dan (2) (PU (A) 187/82).

(4) Walau apa pun peruntukan paragraf (3), jika nama sesuatu firma, persatuan atau syarikat sebagaimana yang didaftarkan di bawah Akta Pendaftaran Perniagaan 1956, Akta syarikat 1965 atau Akta Pertubuhan 1966, terdiri dari atau termasuk perkataan yang bukan dalam bahasa Malaysia, maka tidaklah perlu diterjemahkan perkataan-perkataan ini ke dalam bahasa Malaysia (PU (A) 187/82).

(5) Walau apa pun peruntukan-peruntukan (4), Datuk Bandar boleh menghendaki butir-butir perniagaan, syarikat-syarikat atau pertubuhan itu hendaklah mematuhi peruntukan-peruntukan dalam perenggan (1) dan (2) (PU (A) 364/85).

6.1.3 Iklan yang dihantar untuk mendapatkan pengesahan daripada Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka mestilah iklan yang belum disahkan bahasa kebangsaannya oleh Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka.

6.2 Jenis Iklan

6.2.1 Iklan Bergambar

Iklan yang hanya mengandungi gambar dan tidak mengandungi teks.

6.2.2 Iklan Berteks

Iklan yang hanya mengandungi teks dalam bahasa kebangsaan dan bahasa-bahasa lain dan tidak bergambar.

6.2.3 Iklan Bergambar dan Berteks

Iklan yang mengandungi gambar dan teks dalam bahasa kebangsaan dan bahasa-bahasa lain.

7.0 PROSES PENGESAHAN BAHASA KEBANGSAAN DALAM IKLAN

7.1 Pangkalan Data (SPIN)

7.1.1 PTPO menerima dokumen iklan daripada pelanggan melalui e-mel, kunjungan peribadi, MMS. Sistem Pesanan Ringkas (SMS) atau pos.

7.1.2 PTPO menganalisis maklumat pada dokumen iklan. Dokumen iklan yang dihantar mestilah disertakan bersama-sama dengan borang standard KNB.

7.1.3 Sekiranya lengkap, dokumen iklan tersebut direkodkan dalam pangkalan data. Jika sebaliknya, dokumen iklan dikembalikan kepada pelanggan untuk dilengkapkan.

7.1.4 Setelah direkodkan, dokumen iklan diserahkan kepada KB/Penanggungjawab untuk diagihkan kepada PPB yang dinamakan.

7.1.5 PPB menyemak penggunaan bahasa kebangsaan dalam iklan tersebut.

7.1.6 Iklan yang betul penggunaan bahasa kebangsaan dalam iklan tersebut.

7.1.7 Setelah disahkan, PTPO mengembalikan iklan kepada pelanggan.

7.1.8 PTPO merekodkan iklan dalam pangkalan data dan memfailkannya.

7.1.9 Carta Aliran Proses Pengesahan Bahasa Kebangsaan dalam Iklan. Sila lihat Lampiran 4.

7.2 Sistem Bahasa Melayu Bersepadu (SBMB)

7.2.1 KB/Penanggungjawab menerima dokumen iklan daripada pelanggan melalui Sistem Bahasa Melayu Bersepadu (SBMB).

7.2.2 KB/Penanggungjawab mengagihkan iklan kepada PPB yang dinamakan.

7.2.3 PPB menyemak penggunaan bahasa kebangsaan dalam iklan tersebut.

7.2.4 Iklan yang betul penggunaan bahasanya akan disahkan menggunakan cap pengesahan. Jika sebaliknya, iklan tersebut akan dikembalikan kepada pelanggan untuk pembetulan. Iklan yang disahkan akan direkodkan secara automatik melalui sistem pangkalan data yang dirangkaikan dengan SBMB.

7.2.5 PPB mencetak iklan yang telah disahkan untuk direkodkan dan disimpan ke dalam fail.

7.2.6 Carta Aliran Proses Pengesahan Bahasa Kebangsaan dalam Iklan. Sila Lihat Lampiran 5.

8.0 PENUTUP

8.1 Projek Pengesahan Bahasa Kebangsaan Dalam Iklan menggunakan Pangkalan Data ini telah diperakukan oleh Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka sebagai salah satu Prosedur Kendalian Standard (S.O.P) yang diguna pakai di Bahagian Pengembangan Bahasa Sektor Swasta, DBP Ibu Pejabat, Unit Bahasa DBP Cawangan Sabah dan Sarawak serta Unit Bahasa di DBP Wilayah Utara, Timur dan Selatan.

8.2 Menjadikan proses Pengesahan Bahasa Kebangsaan dalam Iklan lebih sistematik, cekap, menjimatkan masa dan kos.

8.3 Menjadi satu perkongsian pintar antara Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka, Pihak Berkuasa Tempatan dan Agensi Pengiklanan.

8.4 Meningkatkan kualiti penggunaan bahasa kebangsaan dalam bidang pengiklanan agar bahasa yang digunakan baku, berkesan dan tekal dalam semua aspek.

APPENDIX 5

Undang-Undang Kecil Iklan (Majlis Bandaraya Ipoh) 2013 [Advertisement By-Laws (Ipoh City Council) 2013]

Pk. P.U. 23,

AKTA KERAJAAN TEMPATAN 1976

UNDANG-UNDANG KECIL IKLAN

(MAJLIS BANDARAYA IPOH) 2013

SUSUNAN UNDANG-UNDANG KECIL

BAHAGIAN I
PERMULAAN

Undang-undang kecil

1. Nama, pemakaian dan permulaan kuat kuasa
2. Tafsiran

BAHAGIAN II
BAHASA IKLAN

3. Bahasa iklan
4. Penggunaan Bahasa Kebangsaan yang betul
5. Iklan minuman keras, arak atau bir
6. Penggunaan tanda Halal

BAHAGIAN III
PELESENAN IKLAN

7. Pelesenan iklan
8. Permohonan lesen
9. Pematuhan kepada syarat lesen
10. Kuasa mengenakan syarat tambahan, mengubah atau membatalkan syarat
11. Lesen tidak boleh dipindah milik
12. Iklan yang dikecualikan daripada lesen
13. Lesen jangka pendek
14. Permohonan lesen jangka pendek
15. Deposit
16. Pelucuthakan deposit
17. Pembayaran balik deposit
18. Pembatalan lesen
19. Lesen hendaklah dipamerkan dan dikemukakan
20. Kawasan pengiklanan
21. Majlis merujuk Jabatan yang berkaitan

BAHAGIAN IV
PENYENGGARAAN IKLAN

Undang-undang kecil

22. Iklan hendaklah dalam keadaan baik
23. Unjuran
24. Keselamatan
25. Penyenggaraan
26. Penurunan iklan
27. Majlis tidak bertanggungan terhadap keruntuhan struktur, dsb.

BAHAGIAN V
PENGUATKUASAAN

28. Kuasa memasuki dan memeriksa premis
29. Kuasa untuk menyiasat
30. Kuasa untuk mengkehendaki nama, *dsb.*, diberikan
31. Kuasa menangkap
32. Majlis tidak bertanggungan atas kehilangan atau kerosakan
33. Halangan, *dsb.*

BAHAGIAN VI
IKLAN YANG DILARANG DAN TIDAK MEMATUHI UNDANG-UNDANG KECIL

34. Iklan yang dilarang

BAHAGIAN VII
AM

35. Anggapan
36. Pendakwaan
37. Pengecualian
38. Pengkompaunan kesalahan
39. Penalti
40. Penyampaian dokumen
41. Kuasa untuk meminda atau memansuhkan Jadual
42. Pemansuhan dan peralihan

JADUAL

AKTA KERAJAAN TEMPATAN 1976

UNDANG-UNDANG KECIL IKLAN

(MAJLIS BANDARAYA IPOH) 2013

PADA menjalankan kuasa-kuasa yang diberikan oleh seksyen 102 Akta Kerajaan Tempatan 1976 [*Akta 171*], Majlis Bandaraya Ipoh dengan ini membuat dan menurut seksyen 103 Akta tersebut, Pihak Berkuasa Negeri mengesahkan, undang-undang kecil yang berikut:

BAHAGIAN I

PERMULAAN

Nama, pemakaian dan permulaan kuat kuasa

1. (1) Undang-undang kecil ini bolehlah dinamakan **Undang-Undang Kecil Iklan (Majlis Bandaraya Ipoh) 2013**.

(2) Undang-Undang Kecil ini hendaklah terpakai hanya bagi kawasan Majlis Bandaraya Ipoh.

(3) Undang-Undang Kecil ini hendaklah mula berkuat kuasa pada tarikh ianya disiarkan dalam *Warta*.

Tafsiran

2. Dalam Undang-Undang Kecil ini, melainkan jika konteksnya menghendaki makna yang lain—

"arkitek berdaftar" ertinya seseorang yang didaftarkan di bawah Akta Arkitek 1967 [*Akta 117*];

"Datuk Bandar" ertinya Datuk Bandar Majlis Bandaraya Ipoh.

"fi" ertinya fi yang ditetapkan dalam Jadual;

"hasutan" hendaklah mempunyai makna yang sama yang diberikan kepadanya di bawah Akta Hasutan 1948 [*Akta 15*];

"iklan" ertinya apa-apa pemberitahuan, poster, papan tanda, tanda tunjuk arah, pengumuman atau penerbitan yang dipamerkan bagi maksud memberitahu orang ramai mengenai apa-apa barang, keluaran, pengeluaran, perdagangan, perniagaan, profesion, firma, pertubuhan, organisasi, institusi, tempat, premis, acara, aktiviti atau apa-apa perkara atau maklumat lain di atas apa-apa dinding adang, papan, papan iklan, sepanduk, atap, dinding, pagar pancang, pagar, pokok, rangka, plet, kain, jeriji, tiang, dawai, bingkai, kenderaan, papan elektronik, hologram, menara setiang atau dengan menggunakan cahaya laser atau apa-apa struktur atau rekaan lain atau mana-mana bahagian daripada struktur atau rekaan lain itu, di atas, di dalam atau mana-mana bangunan, jalan, tempat awam atau mana-mana tanah dan termasuklah tanda langit, belon dan sepanduk tetapi tidak termasuk suatu iklan pilihanraya;

"iklan bercahaya" ertinya mana-mana iklan yang disinari daripada dalam struktur atau rangka iklan itu sendiri dengan lampu eletrik seperti lampu bebola, lampu kalimantang, lampu neon, lampu limpah atau apa-apa alat yang berada

diluar stuktur atau rangka iklan itu yang mengeluarkan cahaya pancaran ke arah iklan itu yang akan menyebabkan iklan itu dilihat dengan jelas pada waktu malam;

"iklan tidak bercahaya" ertinya apa-apa iklan selain iklan bercahaya;

"iklan masyarakat sosial" ertinya suatu iklan berarah sementara yang didirikan atau dipamerkan bagi tempoh tidak lebih daripada tujuh hari di sepanjang hak lalu lalang awam oleh seseorang untuk memberi arahan ke suatu majlis tertutup, sosial atau masyarakat;

"iklan pilihanraya" hendaklah mempunyai makna yang sama yang diberikan kepadanya di bawah Undang-Undang Kecil Kerajaan Tempatan (Iklan Pilihanraya) (Majlis Bandaraya Ipoh) 1990 [*Pk.P.U.20/1990*];

"iklan politik" ertinya apa-apa iklan oleh mana-mana pertubuhan politik yang dipamerkan kepada orang awam;

"iklan sementara" ertinya apa-apa iklan yang dipamerkan bagi suatu tempoh jangka pendek dan hendaklah termasuk sepanduk, tanda, strima, panji-panji, iklan perayaan, iklan boleh kembung dan iklan promosi;

"jurutera awam berdaftar" atau "jurutera struktur berdaftar" ertinya orang yang didaftarkan di bawah Akta Pendaftaran Jurutera 1967 [*Akta 138*];

"lesen" ertinya lesen yang dikeluarkan dibawah Undang-Undang Kecil ini;

"Majlis" ertinya Majlis Bandaraya Ipoh;

"nombor bersiri iklan" ertinya suatu siri abjad dan/atau nombor yang dikeluarkan oleh Majlis kepada lesen iklan yang siri abjad dan/atau nombor itu hendaklah dipamerkan di atas iklan berkenaan;

"orang" ertinya—

(i) pemunya atau penghuni mana-mana tanah, bangunan atau mana-mana struktur yang di atasnya iklan itu dipamerkan; atau

(ii) mana-mana firma, pertubuhan, syarikat, persatuan, pertubuhan koperasi atau mana-mana organisasi lain yang didaftarkan mengikut Akta Pendaftaran Perniagaan 1956 [*Akta 197*], Akta Syarikat 1965 [*Akta 125*], Akta Pertubuhan 1966 [*Akta 335*] atau Akta Koperasi 1993 [*Akta 502*];

"pekhidmat" ertinya mana-mana orang yang dilantik oleh Majlis bagi tujuan Undang-Undang Kecil ini;

"pemegang lesen" ertinya mana-mana orang yang kepadanya lesen dikeluarkan di bawah Undang-Undang Kecil ini;

"poster" ertinya iklan yang berukuran tidak lebih daripada enam puluh sentimeter kali sembilan puluh sentimeter dan bukan daripada jenis kekal;

"papan tanda" ertinya mana-mana papan yang menunjukkan nama atau cap dagangan berdaftar mana-mana orang, firma, perbadanan, pertubuhan, jenis tred, perniagaan atau profesion yang dijalankan oleh orang, firma, pertubuhan atau perbadanan itu;

"tanda tunjuk arah" ertinya mempamerkan dengan apa-apa cara cap dagangan berdaftar atau jenis tred, perniagaan atau profesion mana-mana orang, firma, perbadanan atau pertubuhan dan dimaksudkan untuk menunjukkan jalan ke premis di mana papan tanda itu tidak dapat dilihat dari jalan;

"tanda langit" ertinya apa-apa binaan yang terdiri daripada suatu bingkai, papan dendeng, papan, bar, pilar, tiang, dawai atau sesuatu gabungan daripada benda-benda itu atau apa-apa binaan yang serupa itu, apa-apa benda yang boleh dilihat terapung atau ditetapkan kedudukannya dengan ikatan dawai atau dengan alat lain yang boleh dilentur, yang ditunjukkan bagi maksud iklan perdagangan atau profesion dalam sesuatu kedudukan supaya boleh mudah dilihat berlatarkan langit dari mana-mana lebuh atau tempat awam.

"tiang poster" ertinya tiang yang disediakan oleh Majlis untuk mempamerkan apa-apa poster;

"premis" hendaklah mempunyai makna yang sama yang diberikan kepadanya di bawah Akta Jalan, Parit dan Bangunan 1974 [*Akta 133*];

"premis berlesen" ertinya mana-mana premis yang menjalankan apa-apa aktiviti tred, perniagaan, atau perindustrian yang telah dilesenkan oleh Majlis di bawah Undang-Undang Kecil ini.

"tempat awam" ertinya mana-mana tempat terbuka, tempat letak kereta, taman, medan atau dataran rekreasi dan hiburan, sama ada dipagari atau tidak, diasingkan atau diperuntukkan bagi kegunaan orang awam atau orang awam boleh pada bila-bila masa mempunyai akses; dan

"Pegawai Yang Diberi Kuasa" ertinya mana-mana Pegawai Yang Diberi Kuasa secara bertulis oleh Datuk Bandar.

Bahagian II

BAHASA IKLAN

Bahasa iklan

3. (1) Setiap iklan hendaklah dalam Bahasa Kebangsaan sama ada dalam Bahasa Kebangsaan semata-mata atau bersama-sama dengan mana-mana bahasa lain.

(2) Perkataan-perkataan dan huruf-huruf dalam Bahasa Kebangsaan hendaklah diberi keutamaan dalam warnanya dan di suatu kedudukan yang lebih jelas daripada perkataan-perkataan atau huruf-huruf atau tulisan-tulisan dalam bahasa lain yang digunakan dan saiznya hendaklah tidak melebihi ukuran yang terdapat dalam Bahasa Kebangsaan.

(3) Majlis boleh menambah, meminda atau membatalkan apa-apa perkataan kepada Bahasa Kebangsaan untuk dipamerkan pada iklan bagi menerangkan apa-apa jenis dan aktiviti perniagaan seperti mana yang telah ditetapkan.

(4) Mana-mana orang tidak boleh mempamerkan, mendirikan atau menyebabkan dipamerkan atau didirikan apa-apa iklan yang tidak mematuhi perenggan (1) dan (2).

(5) Walau apa pun perenggan (4), jika nama sesebuah firma, pertubuhan, syarikat, persatuan, pertubuhan koperasi atau mana-mana organisasi lain sebagaimana yang didaftarkan di bawah Akta Pendaftaran Perniagaan 1956, Akta Syarikat 1965, Akta Pertubuhan 1966 atau Akta Koperasi 1993 tidak terdiri daripada atau termasuk perkataan dalam bahasa kebangsaan, maka perkataan itu tidak perlu diterjemahkan ke dalam Bahasa Kebangsaan.

Penggunaan Bahasa Kebangsaan yang betul

4. (1) Jika Majlis berpendapat bahawa Bahasa Kebangsaan telah tidak digunakan dengan betul dalam mana-mana iklan, Majlis boleh, melalui notis secara bertulis, mengarahkan orang yang mempamerkan atau mendirikan iklan itu atau yang menyebabkan atau membenarkan iklan itu dipamer atau didirikan, supaya meminda iklan itu untuk memperbetulkan kesilapan itu mengikut apa-apa cara dan dalam apa-apa tempoh sebagaimana yang dinyatakan oleh Majlis dalam notis itu.

(2) Mana-mana orang yang gagal mematuhi notis yang dikeluarkan oleh Majlis adalah melakukan suatu kesalahan.

Iklan minuman keras, arak atau bir

5. Mana-mana premis yang menjual minuman keras, arak atau bir hendaklah—

(a) mempamerkan iklan minuman keras, arak atau bir di dalam premis berlesen sahaja; dan

(b) iklan itu tidak boleh lebih besar daripada iklan utama.

Penggunaan tanda Halal

6. (1) Tiada seorang pun boleh menggunakan atau mempamerkan apa-apa perkataan, logo atau tanda "Halal" atau "Ditanggung Halal" tanpa mendapat sijil pengesahan Halal dari Jabatan Kemajuan Islam Malaysia (JAKIM), Majlis Agama Islam Negeri Perak atau mana-mana pihak berkuasa yang berkenaan.

(2) Mana-mana orang yang melanggar perenggan (1) adalah melakukan suatu kesalahan.

(3) Majlis boleh memeriksa kesahihan dan keesahan sijil tersebut dan mana-mana orang yang gagal mengemukakan sijil itu apabila diminta, adalah melakukan suatu kesalahan.

Bahagian III

PELESENAN IKLAN

Pelesenan iklan

7. Tiada seorang pun boleh mempamerkan atau mendirikan atau menyebabkan dipamerkan atau didirikan apa-apa iklan tanpa lesen yang dikeluarkan oleh Majlis di bawah Undang-Undang Kecil ini.

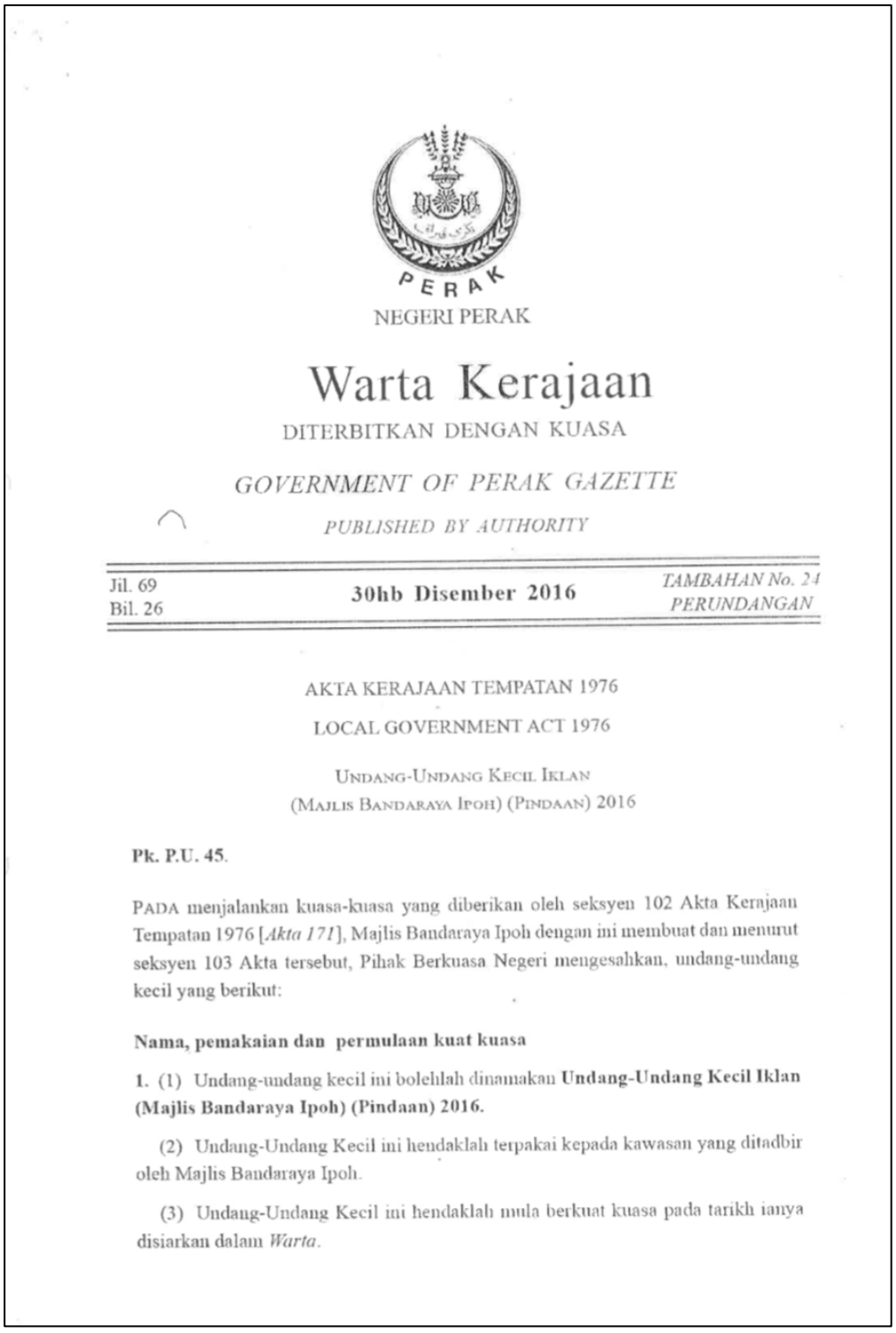
Permohonan lesen

8. (1) Permohonan lesen hendaklah dalam apa-apa cara sebagaimana yang ditetapkan oleh Majlis dan termasuklah sekiranya perlu hendaklah disertakan dengan—

(a) salinan kelulusan yang diperakui sah bagi semua kelulusan yang diberikan oleh Majlis termasuk kelulusan kebenaran perancangan, pelan bangunan, pelan landskap dan jalan, dan butir-butir syarat, jika ada, yang dilampirkan kepada mana-mana kelulusan itu;

APPENDIX 6

Undang-Undang Kecil Iklan (Majlis Perbandaran Ipoh) Pindaan 2016 [Advertisement By-Laws (Ipoh City Council) Amendment 2016)]



PERAK

NEGERI PERAK

Warta Kerajaan

DITERBITKAN DENGAN KUASA

GOVERNMENT OF PERAK GAZETTE

PUBLISHED BY AUTHORITY

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TAMBAHAN No. 24
PERUNDANGAN

AKTA KERAJAAN TEMPATAN 1976

LOCAL GOVERNMENT ACT 1976

UNDANG-UNDANG KECIL IKLAN
(MAJLIS BANDARAYA IPOH) (PINDAAN) 2016

Pk. P.U. 45.

PADA menjalankan kuasa-kuasa yang diberikan oleh seksyen 102 Akta Kerajaan Tempatan 1976 [*Akta 171*], Majlis Bandaraya Ipoh dengan ini membuat dan menurut seksyen 103 Akta tersebut, Pihak Berkuasa Negeri mengesahkan, undang-undang kecil yang berikut:

Nama, pemakaian dan permulaan kuat kuasa

1. (1) Undang-undang kecil ini bolehlah dinamakan **Undang-Undang Kecil Iklan (Majlis Bandaraya Ipoh) (Pindaan) 2016.**

(2) Undang-Undang Kecil ini hendaklah terpakai kepada kawasan yang ditadbir oleh Majlis Bandaraya Ipoh.

(3) Undang-Undang Kecil ini hendaklah mula berkuat kuasa pada tarikh ianya disiarkan dalam *Warta*.

Pindaan Jadual Kedua

2. Undang-Undang Kecil Iklan (Majlis Bandaraya Ipoh) 2013 [*Pk. P.U. 23/2013*] dipinda dengan menggantikan butiran 6 dalam Jadual Kedua dengan butiran yang seperti berikut:

"6. Billboard	*(a)* Bercahaya		
	(i) Bagi 5 meter persegi yang pertama atau sebahagian daripadanya	RM 180.00 setahun	
	(ii) Bagi tiap-tiap satu meter tambahan atau sebahagian daripada-nya	RM 90.00 setahun	
	(b) Tidak Bercahaya		
	(i) Bagi 5 meter persegi yang pertama atau sebahagian daripadanya	RM200.00 setahun	
	(ii) Bagi tiap-tiap satu meter tambahan atau sebahagian daripadanya	RM100.00 setahun".	

Dibuat pada 2 September 2016
[MBI J2/227/27/3;
PU.Pk. 70/75 Jld. 2]

DATO' ZAMRI BIN MAN
Datuk Bandar
Majlis Bandaraya Ipoh

Disahkan pada 5 September 2016
[PU.Pk. 70/75 Jld. 2]

SHAHRUL AZAM BIN SHAARI
Setiausaha
Majlis Mesyuarat Kerajaan
Perak Darul Ridzuan

ADVERTISEMENT
(IPOH CITY COUNCIL) (AMENDMENT) BY-LAWS 2016

IN exercise of the powers conferred by section 102 of the Local Government Act 1976 [*Act 171*], the Ipoh City Council makes and pursuant to section 103 of the Act, the State Authority confirms the following by laws:

Citation, application and commencement

1. (1) These by-laws may be cited as the **Advertisement (Ipoh City Council) (Amendment) By-Laws 2016.**

(2) These By-Laws shall apply to the area administered by the Ipoh City Council.

(3) These By-Laws shall come into operation on the date of its publication in the *Gazette*.

Amendment of Second Schedule

2. The Advertisement (Ipoh City Council) By-Laws 2013 [*Pk.P.U. 23/2013*] is amended by substituting for item 6 in the Second Schedule with the following item:

"6. Billboard	*(a)* Illuminated	
	(i) For the first 5 square meter or part thereof	RM 180.00 per annum
	(ii) For every additional one square meter or part thereof	RM 90.00 per annum
	(b) Unilluminated	
	(i) For the first 5 square meter or part thereof	RM 200.00 per annum
	(ii) For every additional one square meter or part thereof	RM100.00 per annum".

Made 2 September 2016
[MBI J2/227/27/3;
PU.Pk. 70/75 Jld. 2]

DATO' ZAMRI BIN MAN
Mayor
Ipoh City Council

Confirmed 5 September 2016
[PU.Pk. 70/75 Jld. 2]

SHAHRUL AZAM BIN SHAARI
Secretary
State Executive Council
Perak Darul Ridzuan

Pk. P.U. 46.

UNDANG-UNDANG KECIL IKLAN
(MAJLIS PERBANDARAN KUALA KANGSAR) (PINDAAN) 2016

Pada menjalankan kuasa-kuasa yang diberikan oleh seksyen 102 Akta Kerajaan Tempatan 1976 [*Akta 171*], Majlis Perbandaran Kuala Kangsar dengan ini membuat dan menurut seksyen 103 Akta tersebut, Pihak Berkuasa Negeri mengesahkan undang-undang kecil yang berikut:

Nama, pemakaian dan permulaan kuat kuasa

1. (1) Undang-undang kecil ini bolehlah dinamakan **Undang-Undang Kecil Iklan (Majlis Perbandaran Kuala Kangsar) (Pindaan) 2016.**

APPENDIX 7

Undang Undang Kecil Iklan (Majlis Perbandaran Manjung) 2013
[Advertisement (Manjung Municipal Council) By-Laws 2013]

Pk. P.U. 59.

AKTA KERAJAAN TEMPATAN 1976

UNDANG-UNDANG KECIL IKLAN
(MAJLIS PERBANDARAN MANJUNG) 2013

SUSUNAN UNDANG-UNDANG KECIL

BAHAGIAN I
PERMULAAN

Undang-undang kecil

1. Nama, pemakaian dan permulaan kuat kuasa
2. Tafsiran

BAHAGIAN II
BAHASA IKLAN

3. Bahasa iklan
4. Penggunaan Bahasa Kebangsaan yang betul
5. Iklan minuman keras, arak atau bir
6. Penggunaan tanda Halal

BAHAGIAN III
PELESENAN IKLAN

7. Pelesenan iklan
8. Permohonan lesen
9. Pematuhan kepada syarat lesen
10. Kuasa mengenakan syarat tambahan, mengubah atau membatalkan syarat
11. Lesen tidak boleh dipindah milik
12. Iklan yang dikecualikan daripada lesen
13. Lesen jangka pendek
14. Permohonan lesen jangka pendek
15. Deposit
16. Pelucuthakan deposit
17. Pembayaran balik deposit
18. Pembatalan lesen
19. Lesen hendaklah dipamerkan dan dikemukakan
20. Kawasan pengiklanan
21. Majlis merujuk Jabatan yang berkaitan

AKTA KERAJAAN TEMPATAN 1976

UNDANG-UNDANG KECIL IKLAN

(MAJLIS PERBANDARAN MANJUNG) 2013

PADA menjalankan kuasa-kuasa yang diberikan oleh seksyen 102 Akta Kerajaan Tempatan 1976 [*Akta 171*], Majlis Perbandaran Manjung dengan ini membuat dan menurut seksyen 103 Akta tersebut, Pihak Berkuasa Negeri mengesahkan, undang-undang kecil yang berikut:

BAHAGIAN I

PERMULAAN

Nama, pemakaian dan permulaan kuat kuasa

1. (1) Undang-undang kecil ini bolehlah dinamakan **Undang-Undang Kecil Iklan (Majlis Perbandaran Manjung) 2013**.

(2) Undang-Undang Kecil ini hendaklah terpakai hanya bagi kawasan Majlis Perbandaran Manjung.

(3) Undang-Undang Kecil ini hendaklah mula berkuat kuasa pada tarikh ianya disiarkan dalam *Warta*.

Tafsiran

2. Dalam Undang-Undang Kecil ini, melainkan jika konteksnya menghendaki makna yang lain—

"arkitek berdaftar" ertinya seseorang yang didaftarkan di bawah Akta Arkitek 1967 [*Akta 117*];

"fi" ertinya fi yang ditetapkan dalam Jadual;

"hasutan" hendaklah mempunyai makna yang sama yang diberikan kepadanya di bawah Akta Hasutan 1948 [*Akta 15*];

"iklan" ertinya apa-apa pemberitahuan, poster, papan tanda, tanda tunjuk arah, pengumuman atau penerbitan yang dipamerkan bagi maksud memberitahu orang ramai mengenai apa-apa barang, keluaran, pengeluaran, perdagangan, perniagaan, profesion, firma, pertubuhan, organisasi, institusi, tempat, premis, acara, aktiviti atau apa-apa perkara atau maklumat lain di atas apa-apa dinding adang, papan, papan iklan, sepanduk, atap, dinding, pagar pancang, pagar, pokok, rangka, plet, kain, jeriji, tiang, dawai, bingkai, kenderaan, papan elektronik, hologram, menara setiang atau dengan menggunakan cahaya laser atau apa-apa struktur atau rekaan lain atau mana-mana bahagian daripada struktur atau rekaan lain itu, di atas, di dalam atau mana-mana bangunan, jalan, tempat awam atau mana-mana tanah dan termasuklah tanda langit, belon dan sepanduk tetapi tidak termasuk suatu iklan pilihanraya;

"iklan bercahaya" ertinya mana-mana iklan yang disinari daripada dalam struktur atau rangka iklan itu sendiri dengan lampu eletrik seperti lampu bebola, lampu kalimantang, lampu neon, lampu limpah atau apa-apa alat yang berada diluar stuktur atau rangka iklan itu yang mengeluarkan cahaya

pancaran ke arah iklan itu yang akan menyebabkan iklan itu dilihat dengan jelas pada waktu malam;

"iklan masyarakat sosial" ertinya suatu iklan berarah sementara yang didirikan atau dipamerkan bagi tempoh tidak lebih daripada tujuh hari di sepanjang hak lalu lalang awam oleh seseorang untuk memberi arahan ke suatu majlis tertutup, sosial atau masyarakat;

"iklan pilihanraya" hendaklah mempunyai makna yang sama yang diberikan kepadanya di bawah Undang-Undang Kecil Kerajaan Tempatan (Iklan Pilihanraya) (Majlis Daerah Manjung) 1990 [*Pk.P.U.31/1990*];

"iklan politik" apa-apa iklan oleh mana-mana pertubuhan politik yang dipamerkan kepada orang awam;

"iklan sementara" ertinya apa-apa iklan yang dipamerkan bagi suatu tempoh jangka pendek dan hendaklah termasuk sepanduk, tanda, strima, panji-panji, iklan perayaan, iklan boleh kembung dan iklan promosi;

"iklan tidak bercahaya" ertinya apa-apa iklan selain iklan bercahaya;

"jurutera awam berdaftar" atau "jurutera struktur berdaftar" ertinya orang yang didaftarkan di bawah Akta Pendaftaran Jurutera 1967 [*Akta 138*];

"lesen" ertinya lesen yang dikeluarkan dibawah Undang-Undang Kecil ini;

"Majlis" ertinya Majlis Perbandaran Manjung;

"nombor bersiri iklan" ertinya suatu siri abjad dan/atau nombor yang dikeluarkan oleh Majlis kepada lesen iklan yang siri abjad dan/atau nombor itu hendaklah dipamerkan di atas iklan berkenaan;

"orang" ertinya—

(i) pemunya atau penghuni mana-mana tanah, bangunan atau mana-mana struktur yang di atasnya iklan itu dipamerkan; atau

(ii) mana-mana firma, pertubuhan, syarikat, persatuan, pertubuhan koperasi atau mana-mana organisasi lain yang didaftarkan mengikut Akta Pendaftaran Perniagaan 1956 [*Akta 197*], Akta Syarikat 1965 [*Akta 125*], Akta Pertubuhan 1966 [*Akta 335*] atau Akta Koperasi 1993 [*Akta 502*];

"papan tanda" ertinya mana-mana papan yang menunjukkan nama atau cap dagangan berdaftar mana-mana orang, firma, perbadanan, pertubuhan, jenis tred, perniagaan atau profesion yang dijalankan oleh orang, firma, pertubuhan atau perbadanan itu;

"pegawai yang diberi kuasa" ertinya mana-mana pegawai yang diberi kuasa secara bertulis oleh Yang Dipertua;

"pekhidmat" ertinya mana-mana orang yang dilantik oleh Majlis bagi tujuan Undang-Undang Kecil ini;

"pemegang lesen" ertinya mana-mana orang yang kepadanya lesen dikeluarkan di bawah Undang-Undang Kecil ini;

"poster" ertinya iklan yang berukuran tidak lebih daripada enam puluh sentimeter kali sembilan puluh sentimeter dan bukan daripada jenis kekal:

"premis" hendaklah mempunyai makna yang sama yang diberikan kepadanya di bawah Akta Jalan, Parit dan Bangunan 1974 [*Akta 133*];

"premis berlesen" ertinya mana-mana premis yang menjalankan apa-apa aktiviti tred, perniagaan, atau perindustrian yang telah dilesenkan oleh Majlis di bawah Undang-Undang Kecil ini.

"tanda langit" ertinya apa-apa binaan yang terdiri daripada suatu bingkai, papan dendeng, papan, bar, pilar, tiang, dawai atau sesuatu gabungan daripada benda-benda itu atau apa-apa binaan yang serupa itu, apa-apa benda yang boleh dilihat terapung atau ditetapkan kedudukannya dengan ikatan dawai atau dengan alat lain yang boleh dilentur, yang ditunjukkan bagi maksud iklan perdagangan atau profesion dalam sesuatu kedudukan supaya boleh mudah dilihat berlatarkan langit dari mana-mana lebuh atau tempat awam.

"tanda tunjuk arah" ertinya mempamerkan dengan apa-apa cara cap dagangan berdaftar atau jenis tred, perniagaan atau profesion mana-mana orang, firma, perbadanan atau pertubuhan dan dimaksudkan untuk menunjukkan jalan ke premis di mana papan tanda itu tidak dapat dilihat dari jalan;

"tempat awam" ertinya mana-mana tempat terbuka, tempat letak kereta, taman, medan atau dataran rekreasi dan hiburan, sama ada dipagari atau tidak, diasingkan atau diperuntukkan bagi kegunaan orang awam atau orang awam boleh pada bila-bila masa mempunyai akses;

"tiang poster" ertinya tiang yang disediakan oleh Majlis untuk mempamerkan apa-apa poster; dan

"Yang Dipertua" ertinya Yang Dipertua Majlis Perbandaran Manjung.

BAHAGIAN II

BAHASA IKLAN

Bahasa iklan

3. (1) Setiap iklan hendaklah dalam Bahasa Kebangsaan sama ada dalam Bahasa Kebangsaan semata-mata atau bersama-sama dengan mana-mana bahasa lain.

(2) Perkataan-perkataan dan huruf-huruf dalam Bahasa Kebangsaan hendaklah diberi keutamaan dalam warnanya dan di suatu kedudukan yang lebih jelas daripada perkataan-perkataan atau huruf-huruf atau tulisan-tulisan dalam bahasa lain yang digunakan dan saiznya hendaklah tidak melebihi ukuran yang terdapat dalam Bahasa Kebangsaan.

(3) Majlis boleh menambah, meminda atau membatalkan apa-apa perkataan kepada Bahasa Kebangsaan untuk dipamerkan pada iklan bagi menerangkan apa-apa jenis dan aktiviti perniagaan seperti mana yang telah ditetapkan.

(4) Mana-mana orang tidak boleh mempamerkan, mendirikan atau menyebabkan dipamerkan atau didirikan apa-apa iklan yang tidak mematuhi perenggan (1) dan (2).

(5) Walau apa pun perenggan (4), jika nama sesebuah firma, pertubuhan, syarikat, persatuan, pertubuhan koperasi atau mana-mana organisasi lain sebagaimana yang didaftarkan di bawah Akta Pendaftaran Perniagaan 1956, Akta Syarikat 1965, Akta Pertubuhan 1966 atau Akta Koperasi 1993 tidak terdiri daripada atau termasuk perkataan dalam Bahasa Kebangsaan, maka perkataan itu tidak perlu diterjemahkan ke dalam Bahasa Kebangsaan.

Penggunaan Bahasa Kebangsaan yang betul

4. (1) Jika Majlis berpendapat bahawa Bahasa Kebangsaan telah tidak digunakan dengan betul dalam mana-mana iklan, Majlis boleh, melalui notis secara bertulis, mengarahkan orang yang mempamerkan atau mendirikan iklan itu atau yang menyebabkan atau membenarkan iklan itu dipamer atau didirikan, supaya meminda iklan itu untuk memperbetulkan kesilapan itu mengikut apa-apa cara dan dalam apa-apa tempoh sebagaimana yang dinyatakan oleh Majlis dalam notis itu.

(2) Mana-mana orang yang gagal mematuhi notis yang dikeluarkan oleh Majlis adalah melakukan suatu kesalahan.

Iklan minuman keras, arak atau bir

5. Mana-mana premis yang menjual minuman keras, arak atau bir hendaklah—

(a) mempamerkan iklan minuman keras, arak atau bir di dalam premis berlesen sahaja; dan

(b) iklan itu tidak boleh lebih besar daripada iklan utama.

Penggunaan tanda Halal

6. (1) Tiada seorang pun boleh menggunakan atau mempamerkan apa-apa perkataan, logo atau tanda "Halal" atau "Ditanggung Halal" tanpa mendapat sijil pengesahan Halal dari Jabatan Kemajuan Islam Malaysia (JAKIM), Jabatan Agama Islam Negeri Perak atau mana-mana pihak berkuasa yang berkenaan.

(2) Mana-mana orang yang melanggar perenggan (1) adalah melakukan suatu kesalahan.

(3) Majlis boleh memeriksa kesahihan dan keesahan sijil tersebut dan mana-mana orang yang gagal mengemukakan sijil itu apabila diminta, adalah melakukan suatu kesalahan.

BAHAGIAN III

PELESENAN IKLAN

Pelesenan iklan

7. Tiada seorang pun boleh mempamerkan atau mendirikan atau menyebabkan dipamerkan atau didirikan apa-apa iklan tanpa lesen yang dikeluarkan oleh Majlis di bawah Undang-Undang Kecil ini.

APPENDIX 8

Undang-Undang Kecil Iklan (Majlis Perbandaran Manjung) Pindaan 2017
Advertisement By-Laws (Manjung Municipal Council) Amendment 2017]

AKTA KERAJAAN TEMPATAN 1976

(Akta 171)

LOCAL GOVERNMENT ACT 1976

(Act 171)

Pk. P.U. 39.

UNDANG-UNDANG KECIL IKLAN

(MAJLIS PERBANDARAN MANJUNG) (PINDAAN) 2017

PADA menjalankan kuasa yang diberikan oleh Seksyen 102 Akta Kerajaan Tempatan 1976 [*Akta 171*], Majlis Perbandaran Manjung dengan ini membuat dan menurut Seksyen 103 Akta tersebut, Pihak Berkuasa Negeri mengesahkan undang-undang kecil yang berikut:

Nama, pemakaian dan permulaan kuat kuasa

1. (1) Undang-undang kecil ini bolehlah dinamakan **Undang-Undang Kecil Iklan (Majlis Perbandaran Manjung) (Pindaan) 2017.**

(2) Undang-undang kecil ini hendaklah terpakai kepada kawasan yang ditadbir oleh Majlis Perbandaran Manjung.

(3) Undang-undang kecil ini hendaklah mula berkuat kuasa pada tarikh penyiarannya dalam *Warta*.

Pindaan Jadual Kedua

2. Undang-Undang Kecil Iklan (Majlis Perbandaran Manjung) 2013 [*Pk. P.U. 59/2013*], dipinda dengan menggantikan butiran 6 dalam Jadual Kedua dengan butiran yang berikut:

6. Billboard	*(a)* Bercahaya		
		(i) Bagi 5 meter persegi yang pertama atau sebahagian daripadanya	RM180.00 setahun
		(ii) Bagi tiap-tiap satu meter tambahan atau sebahagian daripadanya	RM90.00 setahun
	(b) Tidak Bercahaya		
		(i) Bagi 5 meter persegi yang pertama atau sebahagian daripadanya	RM200.00 setahun

	(ii) Bagi tiap-tiap satu meter tambahan atau sebahagian daripadanya	RM100.00 setahun.

Dibuat 17 Mei 2017
[MPM JU2. U/1/10;
PU.Pk. 59/75(v)]

MOHAMAD FARIZ BIN MOHAMAD HANIP
Yang Dipertua
Majlis Perbandaran Manjung

Disahkan 6 Jun 2017
[PU.Pk. 59/75(v)]

SHAHRUL AZAM BIN SHAARI
Setiausaha
Majlis Mesyuarat Kerajaan
Perak Darul Ridzuan

ADVERTISEMENT

(MANJUNG MUNICIPAL COUNCIL) (AMENDMENT) BY-LAWS 2017

IN exercise of the powers conferred by Section 102 of the Local Government Act 1976 [*Act 171*], the Manjung Municipal Council makes and pursuant to Section 103 of the Act, the State Authority confirms the following by-laws:

Citation, application and commencement

1. (1) These by-laws may be cited as the **Advertisement (Manjung Municipal Council) (Amendment) By-Laws 2017.**

(2) These By-Laws shall apply to the area administered by the Manjung Municipal Council.

(3) These By-Laws shall come into operation on the date of its publication in the *Gazette*.

Admendment of Second Schedule

2. The Advertisement (Manjung Municipal Council) By-Laws 2013 [*Pk. P.U. 59/2013*], is amended by substituting item 6 of the Second Schedule with the following item:

6.	Billboard	*(a)* Illuminated	
		(i) For the first 5 square metres or part thereof	RM180.00 per annum
		(ii) For every additional one square metre or part thereof	RM90.00 per annum

(b) Not Illuminated

(i) For the first 5 square metres or part thereof	RM200.00 per annum
(ii) For every additional one square metre or part thereof	RM100.00 per annum.

Made 17 May 2017
[MPM JU2. U/1/10;
PU.Pk. 59/72(v)]

MOHAMAD FARIZ BIN MOHAMAD HANIP
President
Manjung Municipal Council

Confirmed 6 June 2017
[PU.Pk. 59/75(v)]

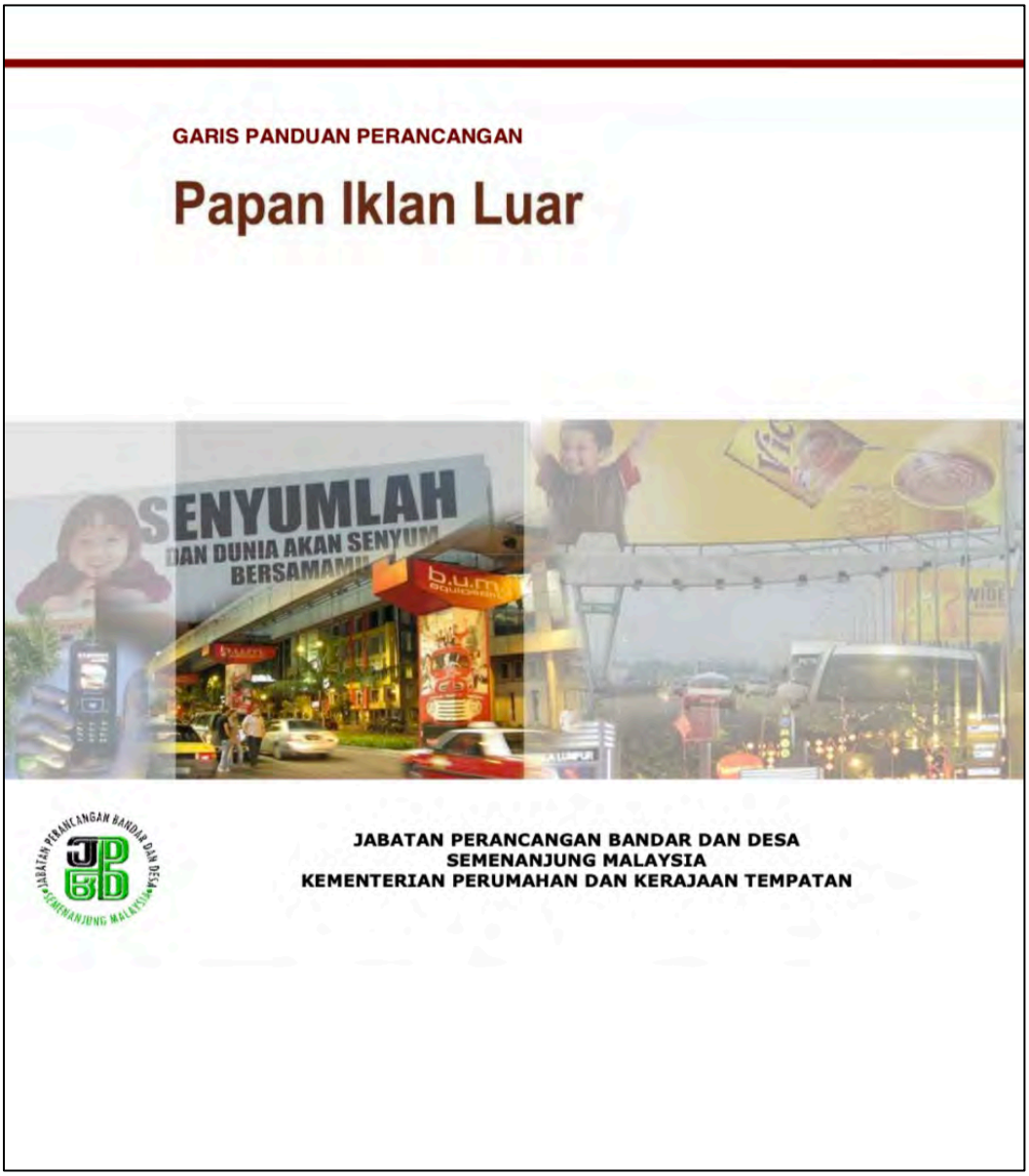
SHAHRUL AZAM BIN SHAARI
Secretary
State Executive Council
Perak Darul Ridzuan

Hakcipta Pencetak Ⓗ
PERCETAKAN NASIONAL MALAYSIA BERHAD
Semua Hak Terpelihara. Tiada mana-mana bahagian jua daripada penerbitan ini boleh diterbitkan semula atau disimpan di dalam bentuk yang boleh diperolehi semula atau disiarkan dalam sebarang bentuk apa jua cara elektronik, mekanikal, fotokopi, rakaman dan/atau sebaliknya tanpa mendapat izin daripada **Percetakan Nasional Malaysia Berhad (Pencetak kepada Kerajaan Malaysia yang dilantik).**

DICETAK OLEH
PERCETAKAN NASIONAL MALAYSIA BERHAD,
CAWANGAN IPOH, PERAK DARUL RIDZUAN
BAGI PIHAK DAN DENGAN PERINTAH KERAJAAN MALAYSIA

APPENDIX 9

Guidelines for Putting Up Outdoor Advertisement (Department of Town and Country Planning Peninsular Malaysia)



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1. TUJUAN

Dokumen ini disediakan bagi memandu pemasangan dan kawalan papan iklan luar secara seragam di kawasan Pihak Berkuasa Tempatan (PBT) di Semenanjung Malaysia.

Fungsi garis panduan adalah seperti berikut:

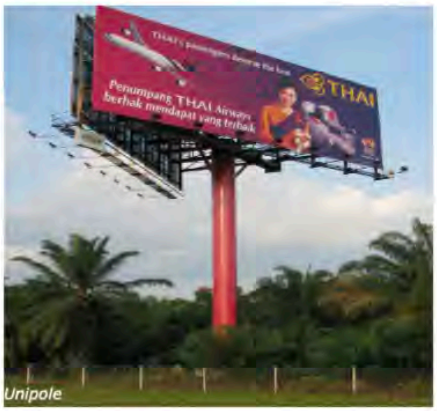
- Digunakan oleh Pihak Berkuasa Tempatan (PBT) secara seragam di dalam memproses permohonan bagi pemasangan papan iklan luar di kawasan masing-masing;
- Digunakan oleh agensi yang terlibat khusus Pihak Berkuasa Jalan di dalam menilai sesuatu permohonan bagi pemasangan papan iklan luar; dan
- Membantu industri pengiklanan mengetahui kehendak yang perlu dipatuhi di dalam pemasangan papan iklan luar.

2. DEFINISI DAN KATEGORI PAPAN IKLAN LUAR

Papan iklan luar merupakan paparan besar yang mengiklankan barangan, aktiviti atau perkhidmatan yang tidak semestinya dijual di mana pengiklanan itu ditempatkan.

Jenis papan iklan luar adalah seperti berikut:

- *Free-Standing Billboard* - Merupakan paparan iklan bagi barangan, aktiviti atau perkhidmatan yang disokong oleh tiang. Kategori ini boleh dipecahkan lagi mengikut saiz iaitu besar, sederhana dan kecil. *Billboard* bersaiz besar kebanyakannya di dalam bentuk Menara Iklan Setiang atau *Unipole* yang ditempatkan di atas satu tiang keluli yang tinggi.



Unipole



Billboard

Free-Standing Billboard

2

- Iklan Dinding – Panel untuk paparan iklan yang dipasang pada dinding atau pada satu jarak dari dinding atau iklan yang dilukis pada dinding di sebelah luar bangunan yang tidak mempunyai permukaan terbuka.



Iklan Dinding

- Iklan Bumbung – Paparan iklan yang dipasang pada bumbung bangunan.



Iklan Bumbung

- *Building Wrap* – Merupakan kaedah pengiklanan yang paling terkini, ianya dipasang pada saiz yang amat besar pada bangunan tinggi dengan menggunakan bahan *vinyl mesh*.



Building Wrap

- *Spectacular Gantry* - Paparan iklan gantri bersaiz besar yang merentangi keseluruhan jalan kebiasaannya 6 lorong atau lebih di lebuh raya.



Spectacular Gantry

- Gantri – Paparan iklan yang lebih kecil yang merentangi sebahagian atau keseluruhan jalan yang lebih kecil.



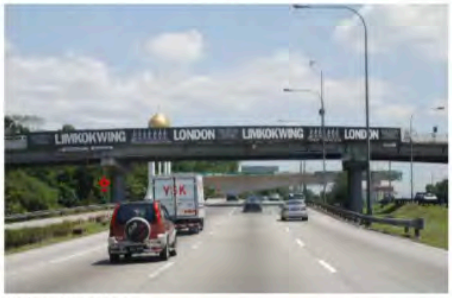
Gantri

- Jejantas – Paparan iklan yang dipasang pada jejantas laluan pejalan kaki.



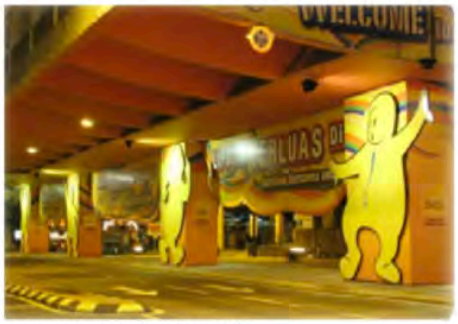
Iklan Jejantas

- Iklan Jejambat – Paparan iklan yang dipasang pada jejambat laluan kenderaan atau jambatan.



Iklan Jejambat

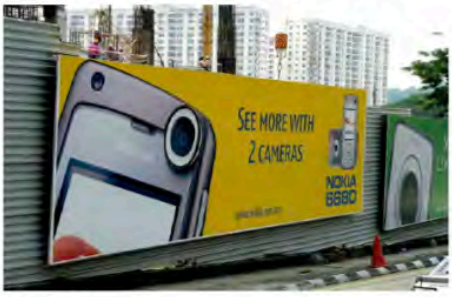
- *Pillar/Column Wrap* pada LRT – Paparan iklan yang dipasang pada tiang/pier LRT kebiasaannya secara berderet.



Pillar/column wrap pada LRT

4

- Iklan Pagar – Pengiklanan yang dipasang pada pagar sementara untuk tujuan keselamatan semasa pelaksanaan sesuatu projek binaan atau iklan pada pagar yang dipasang bagi menutup sesuatu visual yang kurang menarik.



Iklan Pagar

- *Projecting Sign* – Pengiklanan kebiasaannya bersaiz besar yang dipasang pada permukaan struktur yang diunjurkan dari dinding sesebuah bangunan.



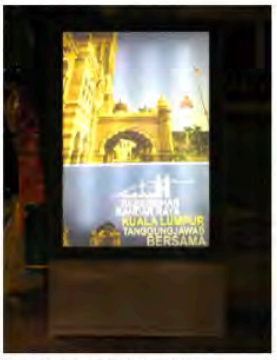
Projecting Sign

- Iklan Mekanikal *Trivision* - Berasaskan kaedah mekanikal untuk memaparkan tiga pengiklanan berasingan secara bergilir menggunakan siri *triangular prism*.



Iklan Mekanikal Trivision

- Iklan Mekanikal *Scrolling* – Berasaskan kaedah mekanikal untuk memaparkan beberapa pengiklanan secara berturut yang disusun dalam bentuk bergulung.



Iklan Mekanikal Scrolling

- Iklan Elektronik - Dibangunkan dengan paparan digital. Kaedah ini berfungsi sebagai sebuah peti televisyen yang menyiarkan visual bergerak bagi tujuan pengiklanan.



Iklan Mekanikal Elektronik

- Iklan Kain Rentang (*Poster*) – Paparan di atas kain rentang di dalam pelbagai saiz yang di pasang pada sesuatu bangunan atau di atas sesuatu kerangka/bingkai *(frame)*.



Iklan Kain Rentang (Poster)

- Iklan Perabot Jalan – Pengiklanan pada objek atau peralatan yang bina di atas atau berdekatan jalan awam. Elemen perabot jalan ialah tong sampah, lampu, turapan laluan pejalan kaki, perhentian bas, pondok telefon dan lain-lain.



Iklan Perabot Jalan

- Iklan Bergerak – Iklan yang dilekatkan pada kenderaan yang bergerak.



Iklan Bergerak



Kawalan jarak di antara pemasangan papan iklan boleh menghindar dari sesuatu papan iklan menghalang papan iklan yang lain.

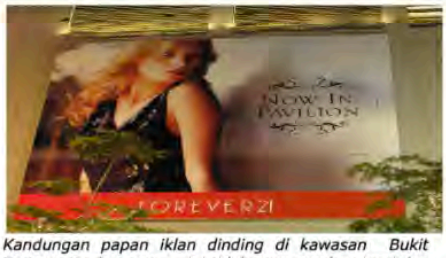
- Kehijauan kawasan lapang awam hendaklah dimanfaatkan untuk ketenangan orang awam dan papan iklan luar yang boleh menjejaskan tujuan ini tidak dibenarkan.



Papan iklan yang dipasang di kawasan lapang awam menganggu ketenangan orang awam.

Kandungan Pengiklanan

- Tema kandungan iklan mestilah bersesuaian dengan barangan yang ingin diiklankan. Kandungan yang mengekploitasikan wajah dan tubuh seseorang, khususnya kaum wanita dan tiada kaitan dengan barangan yang ingin diiklankan tidak dibenarkan. Unsur-unsur eksploitasi selainnya terhadap golongan lelaki, kanak-kanak dan orang kurang upaya juga tidak dibenarkan;
- Kandungan pengiklanan hendaklah jujur, benar dan betul. Ia perlu mengelakkan apa sahaja yang boleh meragukan;
- Kandungan mestilah menggalakkan kepada amalan berbudi bahasa dan nilai-nilai murni antara pelbagai lapisan umur dan kaum di Malaysia;
- Kandungan mestilah mengambikira sensitiviti masyarakat pelbagai kaum Malaysia tanpa unsur-unsur diskriminasi sosial;
- Kandungan yang mengiklankan rokok, arak dan aktiviti yang menjurus kepada perjudian atau perlakuan negatif lain tidak dibenarkan;
- Kandungan yang memaparkan gambar wanita atau lelaki dalam pakaian atau aksi yang menjolok mata tidak dibenarkan;



Kandungan papan iklan dinding di kawasan Bukit Bintang Kuala Lumpur ini tidak memaparkan imej dan budaya tempatan.

- Kandungan yang memaparkan wajah pelbagai kaum di Malaysia adalah digalakkan;
- Kandungan mestilah seiring dengan prinsip-prinsip Rukun Negara dan Dasar Kerajaan;
- Kandungan mestilah menggunakan bahasa persuratan yang betul serta bertepatan dengan imej yang di paparkan;
- Menggalakkan kandungan yang bercirikan adat resam dan nilai-nilai murni masyarakat pelbagai kaum di Malaysia;



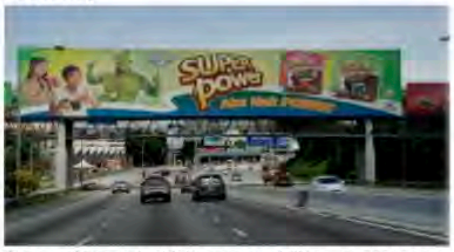
Papan iklan yang memaparkan wajah-wajah kepelbagaian kaum di Malaysia adalah diwajibkan.

- Penggunaan corak yang bercirikan warisan negara adalah digalakkan;
- Kandungan yang memberi gambaran positif terhadap pelbagai budaya masyarakat Malaysia adalah digalakkan;
- Setiap papan iklan hendaklah dalam Bahasa Melayu sama ada dengan sendirinya atau bersama dengan mana-mana bahasa lain. Perkataan dalam Bahasa Melayu hendaklah diberi keutamaan dari segi saiz, warna dan kedudukan perkataan dari bahasa lain. Walau bagaimanapun, penggunaan bahasa lain di atas sebab jenama sesuatu produk adalah dibenarkan;



Tiada penggunaan Bahasa Melayu di dalam pengiklanan tidak dibenarkan.

- Penggunaan Bahasa Melayu hendaklah dipastikan betul dan tepat dari segi penggunaan perkataan, susunan ayat, ejaan, tata bahasa dan sebagainya. Penggunaan bahasa yang betul hendaklah dirujuk dan mendapat pengesahan daripada Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka;



Papan iklan ini tidak mengambilkira penggunaan Bahasa Melayu dengan tepat dan betul.

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- Penggunaan bahasa hendaklah sopan dan tidak mempunyai sebarang konotasi negatif;
- Paparan wajah warganegara Malaysia diwajibkan dan hendaklah mencapai sekurang-kurangnya 70% atau lebih di dalam papan iklan;
- Pengecualian paparan wajah bukan warganegara Malaysia hanya diberikan kepada iklan tempatan yang mempromosikan pelancongan Malaysia ke negara asing dan juga kepada syarikat kembara/pelancongan negara asing;
- Kandungan yang memberi gambaran persekitaran tempatan adalah digalakkan;
- Iklan yang dipaparkan tidak boleh mempromosikan kelajuan. Contoh gambar kenderaan yang memecut dengan laju;
- Iklan yang dipaparkan mesti mempamerkan budaya selamat. Contoh gambar penunggang motosikal memakai topi keledar, pemandu kereta memakai tali pinggang keledar dan sebagainya;
- Bagi iklan ubat, rawatan perubatan dan fasiliti perubatan serta iklan makanan dan minuman yang terkawal hendaklah dirujuk kepada Kementerian Kesihatan Malaysia (KKM) terlebih dahulu;
- Bagi iklan racun makhluk perosak hendaklah dirujuk kepada Kementerian Pertanian dan Industri Asas Tani terlebih dahulu;
- Iklan Institusi Pengajian Tinggi Luar Negara hendaklah dirujuk kepada Kementerian Pendidikan Malaysia terlebih dahulu;
- Bagi iklan elektronik adalah tertakluk kepada garis panduan dan tatacara di bawah *Kod Kandungan* di bawah Suruhanjaya Komunikasi dan Multimedia Malaysia;
- Kandungan iklan hendaklah menarik dan ringkas iaitu 85% grafik dan 15% perkataan supaya tidak menjejaskan kelancaran memandu di atas jalan raya;



Contoh papan iklan dinding yang menarik dan ringkas dengan kandungan 85% grafik dan 15% perkataan.

- Iklan tidak boleh menggunakan simbol dan warna yang seakan-akan menyerupai papan tanda lalu lintas bagi mengelak kekeliruan semasa memandu; dan
- Saiz huruf dan penggunaan warna di dalam iklan hendaklah bersesuaian.

APPENDIX 10

Guidelines for Putting Up Business Premises Signboard (Department of Town and Country Planning Peninsular Malaysia)



1.0 TUJUAN

Garis Panduan Perancangan Papan Tanda Premis Perniagaan ini disediakan bagi memandu pemasangan dan kawalan papan tanda premis perniagaan di kawasan Pihak Berkuasa Tempatan (PBT) di Semenanjung Malaysia untuk tujuan meningkatkan kualiti visual dan estetik persekitaran bandar supaya kemas, selamat dan beridentiti.

Fungsi garis panduan ini adalah seperti berikut:

i. Digunapakai oleh PBT dan agensi-agensi teknikal yang berkaitan di dalam merancang dan memproses permohonan bagi pemasangan papan tanda premis perniagaan di kawasan masing-masing.

ii. Memberi panduan kepada pengusaha premis dalam pemasangan papan tanda premis perniagaan.

2.0 LATAR BELAKANG

Papan tanda yang dipasang di premis-premis perniagaan merupakan satu pengenalan yang menjelaskan tentang aktiviti atau perniagaan yang dijalankan di dalam satu-satu premis perniagaan tersebut. Seperti mana yang kita lihat di kebanyakan pusat bandar terutamanya di kawasan perniagaan, papan tanda menjadi satu tarikan di dalam mempromosikan dan memberitahu pelanggan berkenaan perniagaan mereka.

Walau bagaimanapun, didapati bahawa penyediaan, pemasangan dan reka bentuk papan tanda sering menimbulkan isu-isu perancangan dalam aspek-aspek berikut:

2.1 Kualiti Visual dan Nilai Estetik

i. Saiz papan tanda yang pelbagai dan tidak mengikut ruang peletakan yang disediakan akan menjejaskan nilai estetik keseluruhan blok premis dan juga kawasan sekeliling.

ii. Kandungan paparan papan tanda yang tidak seragam seperti (penggunaan bahasa utama, perihal perniagaan yang dibenarkan seperti maklumat produk atau perkhidmatan, slogan, alamat dan sebagainya) akan menjejaskan kualiti visual papan tanda.

iii. Papan tanda yang dipasang melebihi aras bumbung bangunan terutamanya jenis papan tanda dua muka yang mengunjur keluar, akan menjejaskan kualiti garisan langit (skyline).

iv. Premis yang tidak menyediakan ruang untuk perletakan papan tanda akan mengakibatkan papan tanda yang dipasang menghalang atau menutup fasad atau tingkap berkaca.

v. Papan tanda yang tidak menunjukkan aktiviti atau perkhidmatan sebenar yang dijalankan boleh mengelirukan orang awam (misleading).

2.2 Keselamatan Awam

i. Papan tanda yang menutup cermin tingkap premis boleh menghalang laluan keselamatan kebakaran (fire escape) atau menutup saluran keluar asap jika berlaku kebakaran.

ii. Pemasangan dan perletakan papan tanda yang tidak sesuai seperti pemasangan yang terlalu rendah, saiz papan tanda yang terlalu besar boleh menggugat keselamatan orang awam.

2.3 Keselesaan Awam

Papan tanda bercahaya jenis LED dengan pantulan cahaya yang tidak sesuai boleh mengakibatkan kesan silau yang boleh mengganggu pandangan pemandu kenderaan dan pengguna jalan. Ia juga boleh menimbulkan kacau ganggu kepada orang ramai terutamanya kepada penduduk yang tinggal berhampiran.

2.4 Imej Kawasan Warisan dan Nilai Seni Bina Bangunan

i. Papan tanda premis perniagaan di kawasan tapak warisan yang tidak selaras dengan karakter premis akan menjejaskan nilai kualiti visual dan penghayatan sejarah di tapak warisan tersebut.

ii. Papan tanda yang tidak dikawal reka bentuk dan perletakannya akan menghalang fasad premis bangunan sejarah yang mempunyai reka bentuk seni bina yang unik.

3.0 DEFINISI

Menurut Kamus Dewan Edisi Keempat, papan tanda ditafsirkan sebagai papan nama sesuatu tempat termasuklah kawasan, syarikat dan sebagainya. Premis ditafsirkan sebagai bangunan dan kawasan tempat diuruskan perniagaan dan sebagainya. Manakala, perniagaan bermaksud perihal berniaga dan perdagangan.

Sehubungan itu, garis panduan ini mendefinisikan papan tanda premis perniagaan sebagai **suatu papan tanda pemberitahuan mengenai aktiviti perniagaan yang dijalankan, nama syarikat berdaftar, logo perniagaan bagi premis perniagaan tersebut**.

4.0 SKOP GARIS PANDUAN

Garis panduan ini memberi panduan kepada perancangan dan rekabentuk papan tanda kekal di premis perniagaan berbentuk teres/berkelompok dan sesebuah yang berada di kawasan pembangunan perniagaan dalam dan luar kawasan warisan. Skop garis panduan adalah termasuk:

i. Jenis dan Saiz Papan Tanda
ii. Lokasi Pemasangan
iii. Kandungan dan Visual Paparan
iv. Bahasa
v. Bahan Binaan
vi. Pencahayaan
vii. Iklan Selain Paparan Jenama
viii. Larangan Visual
ix. Perlindungan Insurans

5.0 PRINSIP PERANCANGAN

Perancangan, reka bentuk dan perletakan papan tanda premis perniagaan adalah berdasarkan kepada empat (4) prinsip berikut:

i. Jelas dan ringkas

a. Penggunaan ayat dan bahasa perlu tersusun dan tepat dari segi ejaan dan tatabahasa.

b. Visual dan kandungan yang dipaparkan pada papan tanda perlu jelas dan tidak mengelirukan orang awam.

c. Paparan yang dilarang adalah seperti gambar yang menjolok mata, perkataan dan ayat yang berbaur sentimen perkauman dan lucah.

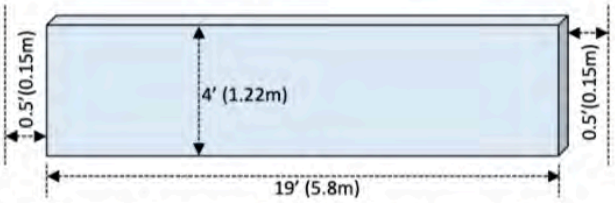
ii. Selamat

a. Pemasangan papan tanda premis perniagaan perlu mendapat pengesahan daripada profesional bagi memastikan struktur pemasangan papan tanda teguh dan tidak membahayakan pekerja dan orang awam.

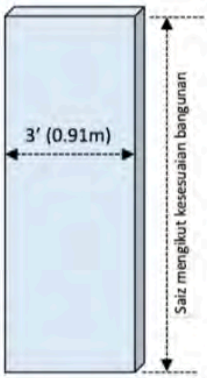
6.0 GARIS PANDUAN PAPAN TANDA PREMIS PERNIAGAAN

6.1 Premis Perniagaan Berbentuk Teres (Tidak Bernilai Warisan)

Bil.	Aspek	Garis Panduan
1.	Jenis dan saiz papan tanda	i. Saiz papan tanda jenis melintang yang dibenarkan perlu mengikut saiz kelebaran unit premis dengan ketinggian maksimum 4kaki (1.22m). ii. Saiz papan tanda jenis mengunjur perlu mengikut kesesuaian rekabentuk bangunan dan perlu harmoni dengan papan tanda melintang. iii. Kain rentang tidak dibenarkan dijadikan papan tanda premis perniagaan secara kekal.



Rajah 1: Contoh Papan tanda melintang bagi kedai berkelebaran 20'(6m)



Rajah 2: Contoh Papan tanda mengunjur.

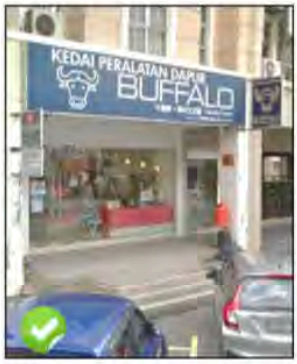


Foto 1:
Contoh reka bentuk papan tanda yang harmoni antara papan tanda melintang dengan papan tanda tegak dua muka.



Foto 2:
Papan tanda yang menggunakan kain rentang adalah tidak dibenarkan.

6.1 Premis Perniagaan Berbentuk Teres (Tidak Bernilai Warisan)

Bil.	Aspek	Garis Panduan
2.	Lokasi pemasangan	**a. Papan Tanda Melintang** i. Hanya dibenarkan dipasang di "beam" bangunan premis perniagaan yang dikhaskan untuk perletakan papan tanda. ii. Perletakan papan tanda perlu menyediakan ruang 0.5 kaki pada kiri dan kanan premis. iii. Tidak menutup cermin, tingkap dan fasad bangunan. iv. Papan tanda yang dipasang tidak dibenarkan melebihi aras bumbung premis.



Foto 3:
Contoh peletakan yang sesuai untuk papan tanda.



Foto 4:
Contoh papan tanda yang dipasang melebihi daripada aras bumbung adalah tidak dibenarkan.

6.1 Premis Perniagaan Berbentuk Teres (Tidak Bernilai Warisan)

Bil.	Aspek	Garis Panduan
2.	Lokasi pemasangan	**b. Papan Tanda Mengunjur** i. Papan tanda mengunjur hanya dibenarkan dipasang di aras 2 dan ke atas bangunan premis perniagaan. ii. Perletakannya perlu berjarak minimum 2.6 meter dari paras jalan. iii. Penyediaan papan tanda mengunjur hendaklah tidak melindungi pandangan atau menghalang laluan.



Foto 5 :
Perletakan papan tanda mengunjur perlu berjarak minimum 8.5 kaki (2.6 m) dari paras jalan.

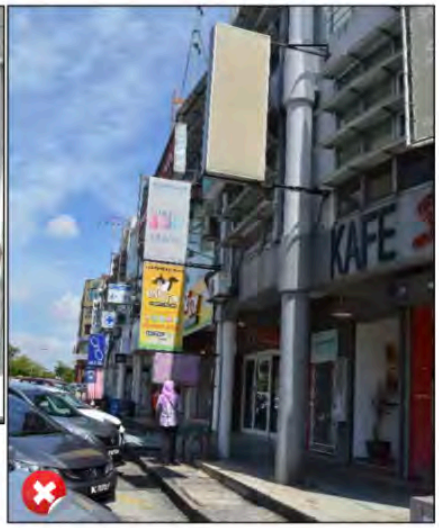


Foto 6:
Contoh pemasangan papan tanda yang menghalang laluan pejalan kaki adalah tidak dibenarkan.

6.1 Premis Perniagaan Berbentuk Teres (Tidak Bernilai Warisan)

Bil.	Aspek	Garis Panduan
3.	Kandungan dan visual paparan	i. Tulisan atau grafik perlu seimbang dan bersesuaian dan tidak melebihi 2/3 daripada ketinggian papan tanda. ii. Papan tanda perlu mengandungi nama syarikat atau firma perniagaan yang berdaftar dengan Suruhanjaya Syarikat Malaysia (SSM). iii. Sekiranya menggunakan jenama sebagai keutamaan di papan tanda, nama syarikat perlu diletakkan di bawah jenama. iv. Aktiviti perniagaan hendaklah dinyatakan dalam Bahasa Malaysia dan dinyatakan dengan jelas dan mudah dibaca di bahagian atas sebelah kiri papan tanda. v. Saiz tulisan jenama keutamaan hendaklah lebih dominan daripada saiz tulisan aktiviti perniagaan. vi. Kelulusan permit daripada PBT hendaklah dipaparkan di sebelah bawah kanan papan tanda.



Rajah 3:
Contoh kandungan dan visual paparan papan tanda.



Foto 7:
Contoh kandungan visual papan tanda yang jelas.

6.1 Premis Perniagaan Berbentuk Teres (Tidak Bernilai Warisan)

Bil.	Aspek	Garis Panduan
4.	Bahasa	i. Bahasa Malaysia hendaklah digunakan dalam semua jenama keutamaan di papan tanda sama ada secara sendiri atau bersama bahasa-bahasa lain kecuali bagi jenama khas perniagaan. (Contohnya TOSHIBA, SAMSUNG) ii. Bagi penggunaan bahasa lain, ketinggian tulisan adalah tidak melebihi ¾ daripada ketinggian tulisan Bahasa Malaysia. iii. Bahasa Malaysia dan bahasa lain hendaklah tepat dari segi penggunaan perkataan, susunan ayat, ejaan dan tatabahasa. iv. Hendaklah mendapat pengesahan daripada Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka (DBP) terlebih dahulu.



Foto 8:
Kesalahan ejaan di papan tanda adalah tidak dibenarkan



Foto 9:
Contoh penggunaan bahasa di papan tanda tidak boleh dicampur aduk.



Foto 10: (i)

Foto 10 (i) & (ii):
Contoh penggunaan bahasa pada papan tanda.



Foto 10: (ii)

6.1 Premis Perniagaan Berbentuk Teres (Tidak Bernilai Warisan)

Bil.	Aspek	Garis Panduan
5.	Bahan binaan	Bahan binaan papan tanda hendaklah dari jenis yang tidak boleh memantulkan cahaya dan tidak mengganggu tumpuan penggunaan jalan dan orang awam pada waktu siang dan malam.

Foto 11: (i)



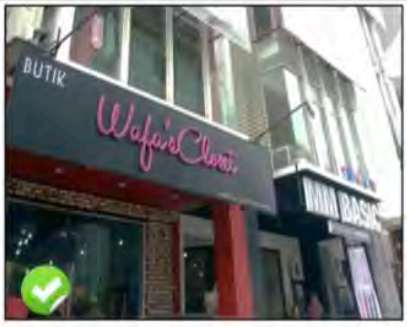


Foto 11: (ii)

Foto 11 (i) & (ii):
Antara bahan binaan yang digunakan untuk papan tanda adalah zink, plastik dan aluminium.

Bil.	Aspek	Garis Panduan
6.	Pencahayaan	Pencahayaan di waktu malam perlu dikawal agar tidak mendatangkan kacau ganggu atau silau kepada pengguna jalan dan orang awam.



Foto 12: (i)



Foto 12: (ii)

Foto 12 (i) & (ii):
Pencahayaan papan tanda di waktu malam yang tidak mendatangkan silau dan kacau ganggu kepada orang awam.

6.1 Premis Perniagaan Berbentuk Teres (Tidak Bernilai Warisan)

Bil.	Aspek	Garis Panduan
7.	Iklan	**a. Iklan di atas Papan Tanda** i. Penggunaan *trade mark*, logo, *tag-line*, slogan yang sesuai adalah dibenarkan dan tidak perlu diterjemahkan ke dalam Bahasa Malaysia. ii. Saiz tulisan perlulah lebih kecil iaitu dengan ketinggian maksimum 3/4 daripada tulisan paparan jenama.



Foto 13: (i)



Foto 13: (ii)

Foto 13 (i) & (ii) :
Logo boleh digunakan di papan tanda untuk memberi informasi mengenai jenis perkhidmatan yang disediakan di premis tersebut.

6.1 Premis Perniagaan Berbentuk Teres (Tidak Bernilai Warisan)

Bil.	Aspek	Garis Panduan
7.	Iklan	**b. Papan Iklan Luar** i. Iklan dinding dan iklan yang melebihi aras bumbung adalah tidak dibenarkan. ii. Iklan kain rentang (poster) yang bersifat sementara adalah dibenarkan menutup bukaan kepada bangunan sekiranya kemasukan cahaya dan pengudaraan semulajadi sekurang-kurangnya 30% daripada bukaan asal.



Foto 14 :
Papan iklan yang dipasang sehingga menutupi fasad bangunan dan melebihi aras bumbung adalah tidak dibenarkan.



Foto 15:
Penggunaan kain rentang sebagai iklan untuk mempromosikan barangan jualan dibenarkan tetapi tidak secara kekal.



Foto 16 :
Papan tanda yang menutupi fasad bangunan adalah tidak dibenarkan.

6.1 Premis Perniagaan Berbentuk Teres (Tidak Bernilai Warisan)

Bil.	Aspek	Garis Panduan
8.	Larangan visual	i. Tidak dibenarkan memaparkan maklumat dan iklan minuman keras, rokok, gambar yang menjolok mata, serta tata kelakuan kurang sopan atau lucah. ii. Tidak dibenarkan sebarang *trade mark*, logo, *tag-line* slogan yang kurang sopan dan mempunyai tujuan negatif.

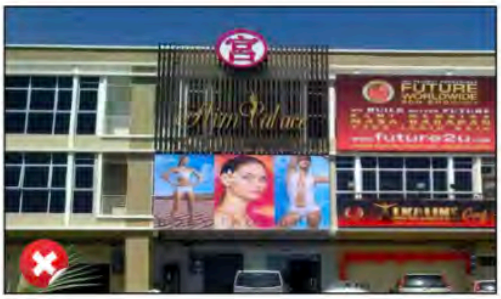


Foto 17 :
Papan tanda yang memaparkan imej yang tidak sopan adalah tidak dibenarkan.

Bil.	Aspek	Garis Panduan
9.	Perlindungan insurans	i. Papan tanda kekal bersaiz panjang dan besar (ditentukan oleh PBT) perlu memiliki Insurans Perlindungan Awam (Public Liability). ii. Kekukuhan struktur papan tanda hendaklah disahkan oleh professional.



Foto 18: (i)



Foto 18: (ii)

Foto 18 (i) & (ii) :
Pemasangan papan tanda pada dua lot premis perniagaan perlu mendapatkan perlindungan insurans dan disahkan oleh profesional.

6.2 Premis Perniagaan Berbentuk Sesebuah (Tidak Bernilai Warisan)

Bil.	Aspek	Garis Panduan
1.	Jenis dan saiz papan tanda	i. Saiz papan tanda jenis melintang dan mengunjur yang disediakan perlu mengikut kesesuaian rekabentuk bangunan. ii. Kain rentang tidak dibenarkan dijadikan papan tanda premis perniagaan secara kekal.

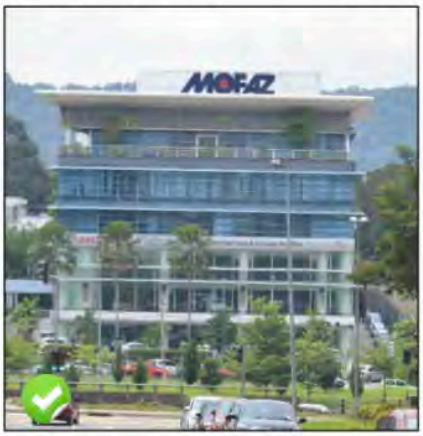


Foto 19 :
Contoh papan tanda yang digunakan pada bangunan sesebuah premis perniagaan.



Foto 20 :
Kain rentang tidak dibenarkan dijadikan sebagai papan tanda secara kekal untuk sesebuah premis perniagaan.

6.2 Premis Perniagaan Berbentuk Sesebuah (Tidak Bernilai Warisan)

Bil.	Aspek	Garis Panduan
2.	Lokasi pemasangan	**a. Papan Tanda Melintang** i. Perletakan papan tanda hendaklah tidak menutup cermin, tingkap dan fasad bangunan. ii. Papan tanda yang di pasang tidak dibenarkan melebihi aras bumbung premis.



Foto 21:
Contoh papan tanda melintang yang dipasang pada bangunan perniagaan sesebuah.

6.2 Premis Perniagaan Berbentuk Sesebuah (Tidak Bernilai Warisan)

Bil.	Aspek	Garis Panduan
3.	Kandungan dan visual paparan	Sama seperti garis panduan bagi premis perniagaan berbentuk teres (tidak bernilai warisan).
4.	Bahasa	
5.	Bahan binaan	
6.	Pencahayaan	



Foto 22: (i)



Foto 22: (ii)



Foto 22: (iii)



Foto 22: (iv)



Foto 22: (v)

Foto 22 (i) hingga ke (v):
Contoh kandungan bahasa, bahan binaan dan pencahayaan yang sesuai di papan tanda premis perniagaan berbentuk sesebuah tidak bernilai warisan.

6.3 Premis Perniagaan Bernilai Warisan

Bil.	Aspek	Garis Panduan
3.	Kandungan dan visual paparan	i. Sama seperti garis panduan bagi premis perniagaan berbentuk teres dan sesebuah (tidak bernilai warisan). ii. Bagi premis yang telah diisytiharkan sebagai tapak warisan, kandungan dan visual paparan papan tanda hendaklah merujuk kepada Pelan Induk Kawasan Warisan yang berkaitan dan mendapatkan nasihat daripada Jawatankuasa Warisan di peringkat PBT.

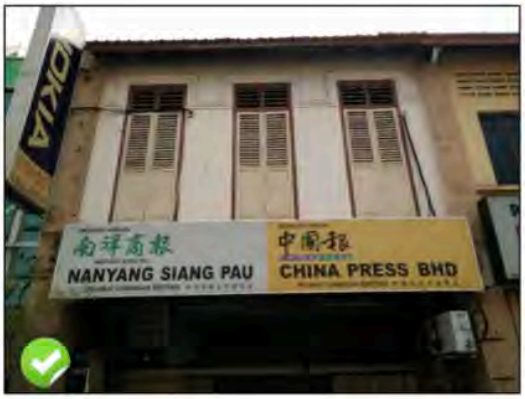


Foto 34 :
Kandungan visual papan tanda yang jelas dan tidak mengelirukan bagi menerangkan jenis perniagaan yang dijalankan.



Foto 35 :
Jenis perniagaan yang dipaparkan jelas dan mudah difahami oleh orang awam.

6.3 Premis Perniagaan Bernilai Warisan

Bil.	Aspek	Garis Panduan
4.	Bahasa, Bahan Binaan, Pencahayaan dan Ilklan	i. Sama seperti garis panduan bagi premis perniagaan berbentuk teres dan sesebuah (tidak bernilai warisan). ii. Bagi premis yang telah diisytiharkan sebagai tapak warisan, garis panduan hendaklah merujuk kepada Pelan Induk Kawasan Warisan yang berkaitan dan mendapatkan nasihat daripada Jawatankuasa Warisan di peringkat PBT.



Foto 36: (i)

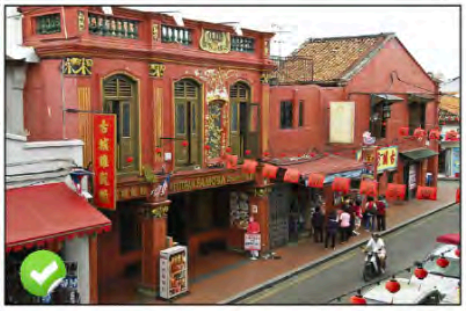


Foto 36: (ii)



Foto 36: (ii)

Foto 36 (i), (ii) & (iii) :
Contoh peletakan papan tanda di premis perniagaan bernilai warisan.

APPENDIX 11

Application for Outdoor Signage/ Billboard License (Ipoh City Council)

GARIS PANDUAN PAPAN IKLAN LUAR PREMIS PERNIAGAAN

i) Wajib mempamerkan keterangan aktiviti perniagaan di dalam Bahasa Malaysia dan hendaklah ditulis disebelah kiri dan diasingkan kedudukan dengan lain-lain perkataan;

ii) Saiz perkataan bagi aktiviti perniagaan hendaklah sekurang-kurangnya 75% dari nama syarikat;

iii) Mencatatkan nombor rujukan lesen dan pemilik perniagaan disebelah bawah kanan iklan dengan saiz sekurang-kurangnya 1.5 mm;

iv) Mesej serta visual iklan yang dipaparkan mestilah mendapat kelulusan Majlis Bandaraya Ipoh dan tidak menyentuh sensitiviti sesuatu kaum, bangsa, agama & negara;

v) Objek / gambar yang dipaparkan mestilah tidak mencolok mata / lucah;

vi) Sebarang perubahan lokasi, sazi, bentuk dan visual iklan, permohonan hendaklah dikemukakan terlebih dahulu ke Bahagian Pelesenan untuk kelulusan dan sekiranya struktur iklan telah diroboh / buka maka hendaklah dimaklumkan juga;

vii) Premis yang bukan dimiliki oleh orang Islam tidak dibenarkan menggantung / mempamerkan apa-apa pameran yang boleh mengelirukan umat Islam seperti ayat-ayat kaligrafi Al Quran termasuk Bismillah / grafik yang melambangkan agama Islam termasuk penggunaan nombor 786 dan logo / gambar masjid;

viii) Saiz pemasangan papan iklan adalah mengikut kesesuaian bangunan kecuali bagi pusat bandar dan bangunan yang mengadap kearah jalan protocol dimana saiz yang dibenarkan adalah 20x4. Bagi kawasan-kawasan selain daripada yang dinyatakan di atas saiz yang dibenarkan adalah 20x6 dan 20x8. Penutupan tingkap / ruang fasad bangunan sepenuhnya adalah tidak dibenarkan.

ix) Lesen pengiklanan yang telah tamat tempoh hendaklah diperbaharui dalam tempoh 14 hari selepas atau sebelum tamat tempoh.

مجليس بندراي ايفوه
MAJLIS BANDARAYA IPOH
Jalan Sultan Abdul Jalil,
Greentown, 30450 Ipoh,
Perak Darul Ridzuan.

Ruj. Kami : Bil ( ) dlm.MBI [redacted]
Tarikh :
Telefon : 05-208 3333
Laman Web : www.mbi.gov.my

[redacted]

PERMOHONAN LESEN PAPAN IKLAN [redacted]

Dengan hormatnya saya diarah memohon perhatian pihak tuan/puan kepada perkara di atas.

2 Berhubung dengan perkara ini sukacita dimaklumkan bahawa permohonan tuan/puan adalah diberi kelulusan bersyarat seperti berikut:-

i) Menulis nombor rujukan kelulusan lesen papan iklan iaitu [redacted] penjuru bawah sebelah kanan dan no. pendaftaran syarikat di setiap papan iklan yang dipamerkan;

ii) Mengemukakan 2 keping gambar papan iklan yang telah dipamerkan menunjukkan kedudukan papan iklan yang telah dipasang dalam tempoh 1 bulan dari tarikh penerimaan surat ini;

iii) Iklan tidak boleh dipasang mengunjur lebih daripada 1.2m (4 kaki) atas mana-mana jalan dan ketinggian minima yang dibenarkan ialah 3.65m (12 kaki) yang diukur tegak daripada permukaan jalan;

iv) Sesuatu iklan tidak boleh keseluruhannya melindungi dan menghalang mana-mana tingkap atau ekzos asap yang terletak di dinding luar bangunan;

vi) Papan iklan ini mestilah dipindahkan ke atas perbelanjaan tuan/puan sendiri jika dikehendaki berbuat demikian oleh Majlis;

vi) Tuan/Puan adalah diarahkan untuk mengibarkan bendera Negeri Perak dan bendera Malaysia pada setiap tahun di bangunan premis perniaaan tuan/puan sempena Hari Keputeraan DYMM Paduka Seri Sultan Perak dan Hari Kemerdekaan. Susunan bendera adalah seperti di **Lampiran A.**

vii) Tuan/Puan perlu menggantikan visual iklan yang telah rosak/pudar;

viii) Tuan/Puan juga dikehendaki memberitahu Majlis secara bertulis apabila hendak memberhentikan perniagaan dan papan iklan tersebut mestilah diturunkan dengan segera.

ix) Tuan/Puan juga dikehendaki memberitahu Majlis secara bertulis apabila hendak memberhentikan perniagaan dan papan iklan tersebut mestilah diturunkan dengan segara untuk tujuan bayaran balik wang cagaran **RM500.00**

3 Syarat-syarat di atas hendaklah dipatuhi dalam tempoh sebulan dari tarikh penerimaan surat ini, sekiranya tuan/puan gagal mematuhi arahan tersebut kompaun sehingga **RM250.00** akan dikeluarkan kepada tuan/puan dan syarat-syarat kelulusan papan iklan akan ditarikbalik.

Sekian dimaklumkan, terima kasih.

"MALAYSIA MADANI"
"BERKHIDMAT UNTUK NEGARA"
"IPOH BESTARI SEJAHTERA"
"IPOH BANDAR RAYA TERBERSIH 2023"
"IPOH BANDAR RAYA PINTAR DAN RENDAH KARBON 2023"

Saya yang menjalankan amanah,

s.k [redacted]

(LEE SOON GUM)
Pemangku Pengarah Pelesenan
b.p. Datuk Bandar Ipoh

2) LESEN PAPAN IKLAN PREMIS PERNIAGAAN LUAR

DOKUMEN YANG DIPERLUKAN :

a) 1 salinan ASAL Sijil pendaftaran syarikat (SSM) atau

b) 1 salinan memorandum dan tata urusa n syarikat (Memorandum and Articles of Association) yang mengandungi borang 9. 24 dan 49 jika syarikat Sdn Bhd

c) 1 salinan bayaran Cukai Taksiran MBI terkini yang telah dijelaskan

d) Lakaran "visual" papan iklan yang akan dipamerkan

e) Bayaran proses RM50.00 dikenakan setelah borang permohonan lengkap

3) LESEN BILLBOARD

a) Permohonan dikemukakan di Pusat Setempat (OSC) di lobi MBI dengan membawa dokumen-dokumen berikut:

- 1 salinan Sijil Pendaftaran Perniagaan borang D & B
- 1 salinan Memorandum atau urusan syarikat, (Memorandum and Articles of Association
- 1 salinan surat perjanjian penyewaan atau dokumen yang berkaitan dengan penyewaan bangunan dan tanah
- 1 salinan geran tanah (sekiranya tanah persendirian) atau
- *Lesen menduduki sementara (TOL) perlu mendapat pengesahan dari Pesuruhjaya Sumpah atau*
- *Surat Pengesahan dari JKR (sekiranya melibatkan rezab JKR)*
- *1 salinan cadangan visual paparan*
- *Lesen Pemaju dan lesen iklan dari KPKT untuk permohonan billboard perumahan sahaja.*

b) Permohonan perlu mendapat kelulusan dalam Mesyuarat OSC yang diadak an setiap 2 kali sebulan

APPENDIX 12

Application for Outdoor Signage/ Billboard License (Manjung Municipal Council)

SYARAT ASAS PERMOHONAN

Permohonan lesen perniagaan & iklan boleh dibuat oleh pemilik syarikat sebelum sebarang aktiviti dijalankan di premis dengan syarat menyediakan semua dokumen asas permohonan serta dokumen teknikal sokongan yang berkaitan dengan aktiviti yang dijalankan.

2.4.1 Lima (5) Dokumen Asas Permohonan (wajib disediakan):

Bil	Perkara	Catatan	Contoh
1.	Salinan Kad Pengenalan/ Passport pemohon	1 salinan	
2.	Salinan Pendaftaran Perniagaan/ Syarikat (*Memorandum & Article, Form* 24, *Form* 49 atau *Form* 13- Tukar Nama Syarikat)	1 Salinan	
3.	Salinan Bil Cukai Harta/ Cukai Harta yang terkini dan telah dijelaskan bayaran bagi tahun semasa	1 Salinan	
4.	4 Gambar berwarna keadaan luar (hadapan) dandalam premis perniagaan/ perusahaan	1 Salinan	
5.	Lakaran/ visual papan iklan yang telah disahkan oleh pihak Dewan Bahasa & Pustaka (DBP): Pengesahan secara atas talian di pautan: https://dbpsahbahasa.my/ **Contoh visual yang dibenarkan** 	1 Salinan	

APPENDIX 13

Proposed Tourist Signage Multilingual Guideline (TSMG)

Dimension	Component	Guideline Recommendation	Intended Outcome	Rationale
Linguistic Dimension	**Language Hierarchy**	BM as the primary & most prominent language (top or in central position, largest font), followed by other languages (e.g., Mandarin, Tamil, English) where relevant to the tourist demographic.	Balanced multilingual visibility & adherence to the stipulated language policy.	Reinforce BM's symbolic prominence while ensuring accessibility for international visitors.
	Language Dynamic	Encourage to use multilingual signs in tourist sites (BM-English is the minimal requirement).	Balanced multilingual visibility, promote inclusivity & cater to the needs of tourists.	Balanced multilingual visibility & promote inclusivity.
	Translation Accuracy	All translation must be verified by accredited translators or authorised agencies and approved by DBP. Avoid automated or incomplete translation.	Professional & clear multilingual communication.	Prevent miscommunication & promote linguistic accuracy.
Visual Dimension	**Font Size & Placement**	Maintain a minimum font ratio where BM text is at least 30% larger than secondary languages. Signs should be placed at eye level (e.g., 1.4–1.6m) and positioned where visibility is unobstructed.	Improved policy compliance & standardisation, legibility and readability across distances.	Align design with regulations stipulated in the policies.
	Design, Colour & Contrast	Attractive designs. Apply high-contrast colour schemes; ensure BM text is clearly visible.	Improved the layout of the signage to make it appealing & enhanced readability.	Enhance comprehension, engagement & visual prominence.
Cultural & User Experiential Dimension	**Cultural Visuals & Symbols**	Integrate local motifs, colours, and culturally meaningful visual (e.g., batik, hibiscus, hornbill) into signage design without affecting clarity.	Strengthened sense of place identity & enhanced tourism branding.	Reinforce Malaysia's cultural representation & promote cultural sustainability within linguistic practices.
	Tourist-Specific Additions	Include tertiary languages based on visitor demographics; integrate digital tools such as QR codes or online translation links to provide contextual information.	Enhanced visitor's engagement & improve smart tourism experience.	Reflect linguistic diversity, address issue pertaining to overcrowded sign & leverages digital interactivity for

				inclusivity and accessibility.
Governance Dimension	**Approval, Monitoring & Compliance**	Signage must be reviewed and approved by DBP, municipal/ local authorities to ensure compliance. A monitoring cycle every 1-2 years should be conducted to ensure continuous compliance.	Consistent monitoring & accountability in signage implementation.	Establish systematic governance mechanisms that ensure signage remains compliant, inclusive, and responsive to evolving tourism & policy needs.

AUTHOR'S PROFILE



Nurul Ain Hasni holds both a Bachelor's and a Master's degree in Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL). She is currently a lecturer at the Academy of Language Studies, UiTM Perak Branch. Her research interests include linguistic landscape, sociolinguistics, discourse analysis, critical pedagogy, and professional and communication development.

LIST OF PUBLICATION:

Hasni, N. A., & Anuarudin, A. A. S. (2025). Authorship and policy compliance in the linguistic landscape of Perak's tourist spaces. *International Journal of Research and Innovation in Social Science, 9*(24), 308–324. https://doi.org/10.47772/IJRISS.2025.924ILEIID0034

Hasni, N. A., Anuarudin, A. A. S., & Sulong, S. (2024). Language choice and preference in the linguistic landscape of Teluk Batik, Malaysia. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences, 14*(1), 2699–2712. https://doi.org/10.6007/IJARBSS/v14-i1/20209

Hasni, N. A., Shak, M. S. Y., Malik, N. A., & Anuarudin, A. A. S. (2022). Linguistic landscape of tourist spaces from 2014 to 2022: A review. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences, 12*(10), 1695–1708. https://doi.org/10.6007/IJARBSS/v12-i10/14996