



Investigating english language representation in the linguistic soundscape and landscape of France: the case of TV advertisements

Majda Taouss

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MEMOIRE DE MASTER

UNIVERSITE DE PAU ET DES PAYS DE L'ADOUR

COLLEGE SCIENCES SOCIALES ET HUMANITES

ALTER (Art/Langages : Transitions & Relations)

Majda TAOUSS

Sous la direction de Dr. Tracey SIMPSON

INVESTIGATING ENGLISH LANGUAGE REPRESENTATION IN THE LINGUISTIC SOUNDSCAPE AND LANDSCAPE OF FRANCE: THE CASE OF TV ADVERTISEMENTS

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Mémoire de master 2

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Dedication

To My Beloved Family

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ABSTRACT

The present study aims at investigating the linguistic soundscape and landscape of French TV advertisements. The exploration of these two variables uncovers the sociolinguistic status of English in France. Building on the data collected in our study (Taouss, 2021), we established two corpora of 115 TV advertisements: one for the linguistic soundscape that contains the transcription of all the spoken linguistic items and another corpus for the written language of TV advertisements. Each corpus was processed through AntConc 3.5.9, a freeware multi-platform, multi-purpose corpus analysis toolkit. This research paper seeks to answer three research questions. First, to determine how much English is represented in French TV advertisements (the linguistic soundscape vs. the linguistic landscape), we used inferential and descriptive statistics, and we presented the results in the form of tables and pie charts for clarity and simplicity purposes. Our inferential statistics show that there is a statistically significant difference between the linguistic soundscape and landscape in terms of English language representation: English is more dominant in the linguistic landscape. Second, to uncover the characteristics and the patterns of the English used in the linguistic soundscape and landscape of TV advertisements, we analyzed our corpora that showed that (i) the patterns in which English is used are trademarks, slogans, product descriptions, and (ii) that their percentage of use differs depending on the medium of communication (written, spoken). Third, we reflect on the sociolinguistic status of English in France through the combination of our quantitative results and official documents such as Laws (Toubon Law, L  otard Law), CSA (Conseil Sup  rieur de l'Audiovisuel) annual reports, and the French Academy's reports which represent the top-down processing. Our study revealed that English holds a low sociolinguistic status in France, its presence in TV advertisements is mainly due to regulations.

Key words: Linguistic soundscape, linguistic landscape, Laws (Toubon Law, L  otard Law), CSA (Conseil Sup  rieur de l'Audiovisuel) annual reports, The French Academy.

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Language is a complex construct. To understand this complex and structured system of communication, different fields of research try to investigate the diverse aspects of the variable of language. Language can academically be approached from different perspectives. On one hand, the purely linguistic approach that studies linguistic structures in terms of speech sounds and the system of their combination (phonetics and phonology), grammatical structures (syntax), meaning (semantics), and contextual meaning (pragmatics). On the other hand, an applied linguistic approach that goes beyond the surface structure of language to investigate other abstract, complex, and compound layers of language, with the help of technology, allowed researchers to unlock different parts of the brain that are responsible for many processes (receptive, productive). For instance, aspects of cognition, psychology, sociology, education, gender, and so on. Undoubtedly, both approaches are interesting and allowed researchers to better understand the complexity of language and draw implications on how it can be acquired and taught effectively. However, the combination of these approaches provides an all-inclusive vision of the studied phenomenon. Because language is not a neutral and stable variable that can be studied in a specific environment and generalize its results to different contexts, its study only uncovers the state of affairs or phenomena that exist in the studied sample. Therefore, in the study of a linguistic phenomenon, defining the context is crucial.

In the present paper, we investigate the representation of the English language in the linguistic soundscape and landscape of TV advertisements on French TV channels. Looking into these two variables through an academic lens allows us to go beyond the laymen's hypothetical assumptions on linguistic representation to provide conclusions that are based on quantitative and qualitative findings. Reviewing the literature shows the powerful effect of language(s), hence its effect on the speech communities. For instance, multilingualism, language perceptions/attitudes, and ethnographic vitality are all social phenomena that exist in most speech communities. Different elements contribute to the linguistic variation that the world knows nowadays, mainly media. Therefore, looking closely at the representation of the English language, which is the only foreign language present in French TV advertisements, is essential. This evaluation of the linguistic soundscape and landscape can tell us a lot about language attitudes of the top-down processing which is the body of authorities that are responsible for language representation (written, spoken) in France.

In the French context, the literature is lacking in the linguistic soundscape that focuses on TV as a means of linguistic output. Studies usually focus on the outside environment and build their linguistic soundscape corpus with announcements from public transportation such as metros (e.g., Diver, 2013), and the linguistic landscape corpus with public signs, billboards, and shop signs (e.g., Guy Amos, 2017). According to our review of the literature on the topic, TV has not been a subject of linguistic analysis in France where an analysis of the English language takes place. Therefore, our study is of paramount importance as it fills the gap in the literature on the matter. Investigating new variables is indeed interesting, yet issues in methodology and instruments of measurement may take place. On that account, we should be very careful when conducting such new studies by thoroughly explaining the adopted methodology and being conscious of the confounding variables that may appear at different levels of the study.

Because of the novel aspect of the present research paper, we made sure to present our chapters in a detailed, yet simplistic way that allows the reader to smoothly transition from one idea to the other. Our first chapter presents a review of the literature on the topic. In this chapter, we define our two studied variables by providing their etymologies, neologisms, and functions. In addition, we explain how academic research approaches studies in these two fields, and how the study contributes to the evaluation of linguistic diversity in a certain context. We also explore the French context in which our study takes place. This step is crucial as it provides a framework for our discussion. We discuss many elements such as globalization and the spread of English, actors in the linguistic soundscape and landscape, and linguistic landscaping and soundscaping and field compromise (politics, economy, culture, and sociology). After providing the key elements that allow the understanding of our variables, we introduce our second chapter which presents our study. In this part, we introduce our research methodology, research questions, research hypotheses, and a thorough introduction of the process of data collection and analysis using the instrument AntConc. Furthermore, we introduce our quantitative results that answer our first and second research questions. In our third chapter, we analyze qualitative data (Laws: Toubon Law, Léotard Law, CSA annual reports, and the French Academy's reports) and use it to discuss our quantitative results to deduce the sociolinguistic status of the English language in French TV advertisements. We conclude our research paper with a general conclusion that summarizes and restates our research topic, reports the main results, and presents limitations and suggestions for future research.

PART I: STATE OF THE ART OF BASIC CONSTRUCTS

1.1 Linguistic Soundscape

1.1.1 Etymology and neologism

The variable that our research paper is concerned with is a compound one. That is, if we want to understand the meaning of the variable, we must dissect it and define all the elements that compose it. The latter is essential because it allows us to build meaning through the singular tokens that compose the studied variable. In our case, to understand the linguistic soundscape, we must first define the notion of *sound* and then move to define the term *soundscape*. Finally, we define the term *linguistic* and add its meaning to the compound noun *soundscape*. Like so, we add all the definitions of each token to build meaning to be able to have a clear image of what linguistic soundscape stands for.

Sound has been, and is still, an essential part of our daily lives. For individuals who are not experts in fields that investigate the acoustic environment that surrounds them, sound can be taken for granted. Our unconscious brains have been programmed to take sound as input and decode its content to build meaning by relying on context. The variable of sound can be approached from many diverse disciplines. It can be approached from historical and geographical perspectives giving us information about the epoch and the location where certain types of machines were used, allowing us to understand the lifestyle and culture of many previous generations. It can also be approached from a sociolinguistic point of view where researchers analyze language (e.g., dialects, varieties, accents) as part of a society's sound system to conclude the education level, social class, status, ethnic background of a given speech community. Sound is also approached from an ecological background where the sounds of nature and its creatures are taken as research material. Computer science is another new field that takes great interest in the notion of sound and the ability to dissect and rebuild sounds to create virtual realities. The interdisciplinarity of sound entails its complexity and the plurality of its meanings and interpretations. The table below by Choe & Ko (2015) summarizes the latter:

Researcher (s)	Classification
Schafer (1977)	Keynote sounds, signal sounds, soundmarks /natural, human, sounds and society, mechanical sounds, quiet and silence, sounds as indicator
Truax (2001)	Speech, music, soundscape

Matsinos <i>et al.</i> (2008)	Anthropogenic sounds, biological sounds, geophysical sounds
Payne <i>et al.</i> (2009)	Natural, human, mechanical
Pijanowski <i>et al.</i> (2011)	Biophony, geophony, anthrophony
Salamon <i>et al.</i> (2014)	Human, nature, mechanical, music

Table 1: Classification and categorization of soundscape

According to Table 1, the conceptualization of sound is still vast and vague. Therefore, defining the term *soundscape* according to the purpose of our study is a key element in building a solid background for our paper. Because the soundscape has been approached from different areas of research, tracing back its origins can be challenging. According to the literature, the term soundscape was coined by Michael Southworth (1967). He first introduced the term in his master's paper entitled *The Sonic Environment of Cities*. A few years later, the term *soundscape* was brought up again by the musicologist Schafer (1969) in his writings. Schafer's contribution to the field of soundscape was immense. In addition to providing the first definition of the word and popularizing it, he also provided an anatomy of the soundscape by dissecting the notion of sound in the world and drawing attention to the importance of acknowledging it and investigating it. He reports that "The world, then, is full of sounds. Listen." (Schafer, 1969, p.5). In 1977, Schafer defined the notion of soundscape as "The sonic environment.... The term may refer to actual environments, or to abstract constructions such as musical compositions and tape montages, particularly when considered as an environment". Based on this definition, Schafer's notion of soundscape combined sounds from nature (wind, rain, snow, humans, shouting, breathing, singing) and machines (cars, helicopters, percussion drills). In his book *The New Soundscape* (1969), Schafer goes more into detail about these different sounds and the need to develop the auditory experience of humans and advocate for the importance of sounds in a highly visual world.

The first definition of the soundscape was too broad. This allowed different researchers to interpret it in their own way and adopt it and apply it to their field of study. Unfortunately, none of the first studies in this area of research gave much attention to the linguistic items that composed the soundscape. Researchers were highly interested in sounds made by nature and machines. New studies came to classify soundscapes and provide different frameworks that could be adopted by researchers from different disciplines. According to the field of physics, sound is defined as "a

mechanical disturbance from a state of equilibrium that propagates through an elastic material medium”.¹ The graph below demonstrates a sound wave:

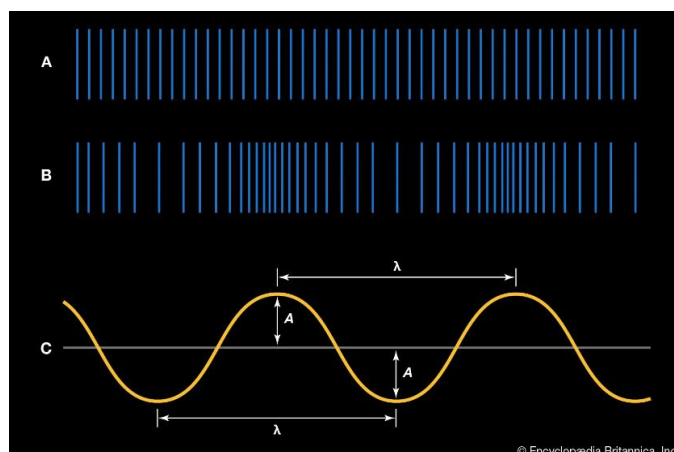


Figure 1: Graphic representations of a sound wave²

Combining the evidence above from the field of physics as well as the claim by Schafer (1977, p.7) that the study of the soundscape is the investigation of *any acoustic environment*, we can say that soundscapes include human speech as well. Scientific evidence shows that sounds, being produced by humans, animals, the environment, or machines, in their core, share similar physical properties that allow us to categorize them under the umbrella of sound or soundscape.

Focusing on the urban environment, speech sounds studies gained popularity and started receiving the attention of many researchers. It has been reported that “The most common classification of sounds is speech, music, and other” (Choe & Ko, 2015, p.6). It is by adding the linguistic dimension to sound that many researchers discover many interesting social phenomena. For instance, De Houwer (2009) introduces the linguistic soundscape as the sum of a person’s encounters with various forms of spoken language. This comprises language used by the individual’s social network, the media, and overheard speech from individuals who do not belong to his/her social network. These claims support the fact that language is an important element of the soundscape, especially in the urban environment where individuals use language as a means of communication. Similar to the linguistic landscape, the linguistic soundscape should also be defined within a specific cultural and social context. Therefore, in this research paper, we will explicitly introduce the French context in which these written and spoken linguistic items exist.

¹ Source: *Encyclopedia Britannica*

² (A) Air at equilibrium, in the absence of a sound wave; (B) compressions and rarefactions that constitute a sound wave; (C) transverse representation of the wave, showing amplitude (A) and wavelength (λ) (*Encyclopedia Britannica*).

We will also make sure to discuss our results while being highly conscious and alerted to the cultural, political and geographical contexts which are considered essential to the relevance to our research paper.

Since the 1990s, we can notice that there has been a massive development in the field of linguistic soundscape and landscape (Backhaus, 2015, Scarvaglieri *et al.*, 2013, Schirmer, K., 2012, Carson, 2016, Truax, 2012, Poirier, 2014; El Ayadi, 2019). Nevertheless, researchers did not include all the media through which language is produced. Research on soundscapes and landscapes was mainly concerned with the outside environment. That is, the public display of language through advertisement or transportation (e.g., Scarvaglieri *et al.* 2013, Backhaus 2015, Gorter 2006, Shohamy and Gorter (eds) 2009; Shohamy *et al.* (eds) 2010). Undoubtedly, these studies provide great literature in terms of methodology and the amount of discussed sociolinguistic phenomena, but more studies that look closely at language produced through other media (e.g., TV, social media) should be conducted to complete the body of literature on the matter. These other types of studies are necessary since the world that we live in today is one where we are faced with tremendous amounts of information through linguistic means from the comfort of our homes, without having to go out.

1.1.2 Origins of the study of the soundscape: using soundscape as research material

The first step in conducting any type of research consists in defining the variables and tracing the methodology which functions as a path that researchers follow, and that leads to the desired destination which in academic research is considered the results and discussion. In the case of research within the soundscape field, the definitions provided in the literature are too broad and vague. The latter can either benefit or hinder the researcher's progress. On one hand, the researchers can shape the definition to fit the purpose of their research. On the other hand, one can wrongly approach the investigated phenomenon by failing to see that the given definition does not fit the researched variable, and that could lead to adopting a methodology that does not go hand in hand with the objectives of the research paper. One way to go about these issues is to bring up definitions of the studied variables from different disciplines and try to find common ground between them. For instance, justifying the fact that TV is a medium for linguistic soundscaping can be established by claiming that human speech shares the same physical properties as the other sounds that have been extensively studied in the soundscape. Another element that supports taking

the soundscape as research material is the amount of literature that has been produced since the late 1990s. The fact that researchers either used the same methodology or type of data is reassuring and functions as background material that researchers can rely on to avoid methodological errors. More research has been done to identify the variables that should be taken into account when conducting research based on soundscapes. The recognition of the latter enables researchers to avoid any confounding variables³ that may affect their results. In Table 2, Choe & Ko (2015, p.7) categorize these variables according to the researchers who presented them:

Researcher (s)	Factors
Job <i>et al.</i> (1999)	Environmental attributes, socio-cultural and psychological variables
Kull (2006)	Sound source
Zhang & Kang (2007)	Source, space, people, environment
Cain <i>et al.</i> (2008)	People (demographics), activities, temporal elements, place
Farina (2014)	Resource, function (sonic eco-field model) / source, descriptor

Table 2: Factors in soundscape research

The purpose behind using soundscape as research material differs from one discipline to the other. Backhaus (2015) reports that soundscape studies are mostly used in studies that adopt a deficiency-oriented approach which is a research method that focuses on people's needs and issues, or on assisting them in avoiding risks associated with undesirable results. In linguistic soundscaping, the purpose of a deficiency-oriented approach is to closely look at the sonic environment and try to solve and better its representation. Backhaus (2015, p.62) further supports this claim as he reports that "everyday urban life is strongly affected by its sonic environment - often in a negative way - led scholars to the conclusion that a soundscape can and must be shaped". He explains that this type of research came to be known as *acoustic designing*. Consequently, researchers quickly realized the serious effects that sounds have on individuals living in a certain environment. In the case of the linguistic soundscape, it has been established that language exposure affects human cognition and is linked to how individuals perceive, acquire and

³ **Confounding variables** "are variables that obscure the effects of another variable. For the most part, confounding variables are confounding because they serve to confuse and obfuscate both the findings from the data, as well as the conclusions drawn from the study" (Ewert & Sibthorp, 2009, p.377).

communicate through language. Linking sound as a sensory-motor⁴ process to different social phenomena was referred to as *applied soundscape*. This type of research has been popularized over the years and led to a significant amount of studies that investigated the soundscape of speech communities worldwide. Backhaus (2015, p.62) reports that soundscape studies are highly diverse and can answer questions like the following:

- Why do certain sounds appear in particular places?
- How do we perceive and experience sounds?
- How and why do individual sounds or soundscapes as a whole change over time?
- How can the arts (music, film, sound-design installations) change our thinking and feelings about sounds?

It can be said that there are two categories of soundscape research: the first, which is the most popular and dominates the literature, is one that takes interest in *sound profiles*. The latter focuses on investigating and collecting sounds from a specific environment and studying them in a way that helps researchers understand more about a given speech community. The data from these studies can also function as material that can be included in music composition, cinema, and virtual reality games. The second type of research is one that takes interest in the sounds produced by human subjects, especially their spoken speech. These studies strive to look closely at sound as one of the essential elements of the human experience. Spoken tokens as an output can be very rich and interesting to investigate from different perspectives. Speech can be studied, on one hand, from an exclusively technical perspective (core linguistics), one that includes speech sounds and the system of their combination (phonetics and phonology), grammatical structures (syntax), meaning (semantics), and contextual meaning (pragmatics). On the other hand, from an applied linguistic perspective which studies language from the aspect of cognition, psychology, sociology, education, gender, and so on. It is by recognizing the pragmatic weight of language presented within different social contexts that we understand its effect as a stimulant and a trigger to a set of human reactions and emotions. It is essential to point out that what we mentioned above is exclusive to the bottom-up processing, one that takes interest in the attitudes, reactions and effects that language has on individuals. The top-down process is another perspective that looks at language from the lens of parties that hold power in the society. Studying language from this perspective allows researchers to draw different conclusions such as the status of different languages in a certain society, its ethnographic vitality and the level of tolerance towards other

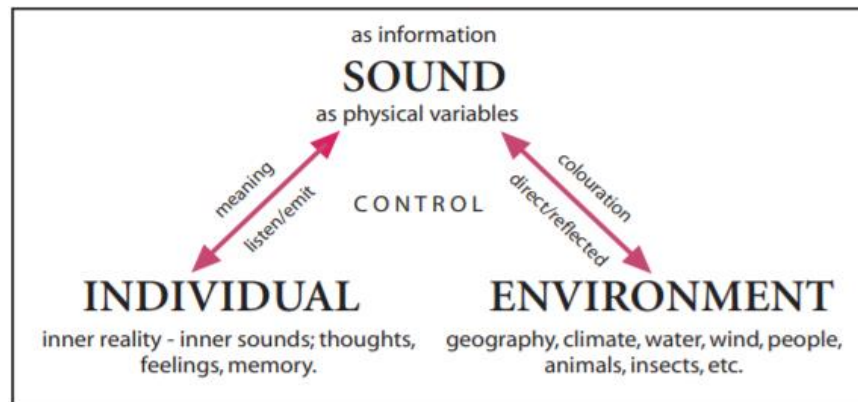
⁴ (of nerves or their actions) Having or involving both sensory and motor functions or pathways (Oxford dictionary).

languages spoken by minorities which give us an idea about the level of multilingualism in a speech community. Schafer (1977) supports this idea and claims that “the general acoustic environment of a society can be read as an indicator of social conditions which produce it and may tell us much about the trending evolution of that society” (p.7). Following Schafer’s (1977) logic, Scarvaglieri *et al.* (2013) report that researchers who are interested in studying the human speech sound adopt the hypothesis that “the linguistic soundscape offers insights into language use trends within a given society” (p.63). To reinforce his supposition, Scarvaglieri *et al.* (2013) gives the example of many German cities that are heavily influenced by immigration and where language trends reflect social diversity. By testing the previously mentioned hypothesis in their research conducted on Hamburg St. Georg, Scarvaglieri *et al.* (2013) were able to quantitatively uncover the level of social diversity of the city by relying on the linguistic soundscape. Table 3 shows the latter:

	Steindamm	Lange Reihe
N (contacts)	1855	1380
German	39%	83%
Turkic languages	17%	3%
‘Englishes’	2%	3%
Slavic Languages	4%	2%
Arabic	8%	2%
Languages from Africa	8%	0%
Other	21%	7%

Table 3: Oral linguistic diversity in Hamburg St. Georg (Scarvaglieri *et al.*, 2013)

Many projects resulted from the studies and data collected from soundscapes worldwide. The purpose behind these projects is to create sound archives for different sounds, be they sounds of nature and its creatures or human sounds (e.g., languages, dialects, language trends). The first international project was founded by the Canadian composer R. Murray in the late 1960’s at Simon Fraser University and was named the World Soundscape Project (WSP). Similar to the early studies on soundscape that came in the late 1960’s, this project did not exclusively focus on human speech but rather on acoustic ecology. The latter is usually used interchangeably with the term soundscape ecology which is defined by Truax (1978, p.127) as the “study of the effects of the acoustic environment on the physical responses or behavior of those living in it”. Wrightson (1999, p.12) introduced the figure below that simplifies the understanding of the field acoustic ecology:



As seen in Figure 2, acoustic ecology studies three main variables: the sound, the individual and the environment. These three entities are different in nature which means that researchers, each in their respective field, should approach them from different fields of study. Researchers support this claim and report that sound ecology is the meeting point between different disciplines such as ecology, behavior, psychology and humanities. Taking into account all these elements contributed in understanding the relationship between the sound, the environment and the individuals living in it. The figure below by Pijanowski *et al.* (2011, p.6) demonstrates the relationship between all these elements:

Figure 3: Conceptual framework describing the underlying processes of the soundscape

soundscape, especially concerning noise pollution⁵. It is believed that by exploring the unwanted sounds in the environment, we can eliminate them and create balance and harmony between the environment sounds and the human produced sounds. The second goal of the project is to create archives of recordings and catalogues of international soundscapes. The purpose behind collecting all this data is to preserve sounds of nature and its living beings, soundmarks⁶ and some sounds that are going extinct.

Many projects followed the WSP and intended to cover more soundscapes. The British Library Sound Archive⁷ has done a brilliant job collecting over six million recordings of diverse sounds (e.g., spoken words, ambient recordings, music). The creators of this project were also able to create an online platform (Image 1) to enable access to individuals worldwide:

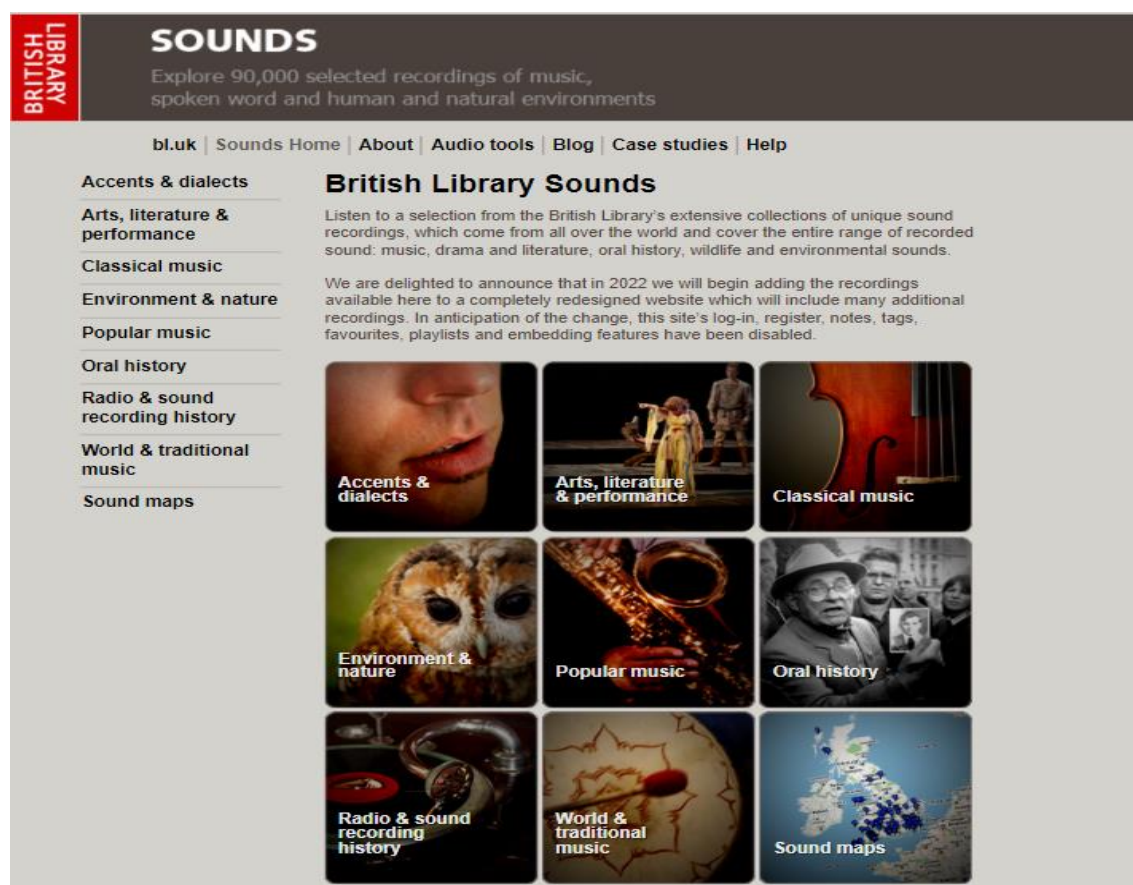


Image 1: The British Library Sound Archive

⁵ “Unwanted or excessive sound that can have deleterious effects on human health, wildlife, and environmental quality. Noise pollution is commonly generated inside many industrial facilities and some other workplaces, but it also comes from highway, railway, and airplane traffic and from outdoor construction activities” (*Encyclopedia Britannica*).

⁶ “The term soundmark is derived from landmark and refers to a community sound which is unique or possesses qualities which make it specially regarded or noticed by the people in that community” (Schafer, 1977, p.10).

⁷ <https://sounds.bl.uk/>

With one click, individuals from around the world can have access to many auditory materials such as: accents and dialects, arts, literature and performance, classical musical music, sounds of environment and nature, popular music, oral history, radio and sound recording history, world and traditional music and sound maps. Undoubtedly, great work has been done to archive these sounds and categorize them according to the region where they occur. Reporting on the British Library Sound Archive, Choe & Ko (2015, p.3) mention that:

As of 2011, it has more than 40,000 sound recordings of music, spoken word, in both human and natural environments. This project as well is categorizing sounds in quite an interesting way in which sound collections are grouped as linguistics-related sounds, recordings on the arts, classical music, environmental sounds, popular music, oral history, historical recordings, and sounds from the world.

FreeSound⁸ is another sound-based project that was initiated by Pompeu Fabra University and that aims to create a collaborative database of a wide range of audio resources under the Creative Commons License⁹. It has been reported that Freesound enables “the user to browse the sounds in an intuitive way by using tags, and also allows the users to interactively share their sounds with other users” (Choe & Ko, 2015, p.3). Below is a screenshot from the FreeSound website:

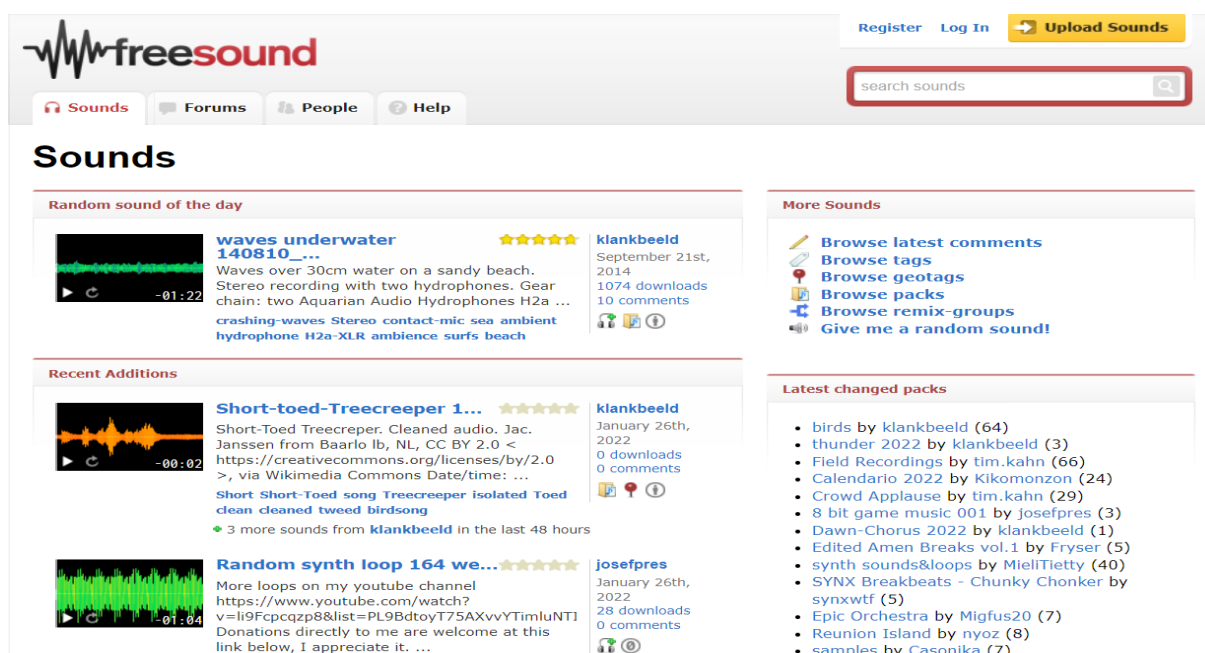


Image 2: FreeSound platform

⁸ <https://freesound.org/>

⁹ “The Creative Commons (CC) licenses are a suite of copyright-based licenses defining terms for the distribution and re-use of creative works. CC provides licenses for different use cases and includes open content licenses such as the Attribution and the Attribution Share-Alike license” (Hagedorn *et al.*, 2011, p.127).

The World Soundscape Project (WSP), the British Library Sound Archive, and FreeSound are all concrete projects that demonstrate that sound is an interesting element that should not be taken for granted. It is by initiating such projects that we can introduce students and the general public to the complex and compound variable of sound. This academic attention will lead to the investigation of many phenomena that will in turn help us understand human behavior, as well as better our acoustic environment by preserving sounds that contribute to our well-being and eliminating those that impede it.

1.1.3 Capturing oral linguistic diversity through linguistic soundscaping

As seen from the literature that has been reported in the previous sections, the linguistic soundscape is, *par excellence*, a means to investigate the linguistic diversity in a given speech community. Because the study of the linguistic soundscape usually consists of collecting data that is composed of spoken linguistic items, its analysis allows researchers to discover not only the languages that are present in a specific region but also the spoken varieties, dialects, and accents. This diversity in sounds allows us to uncover the effects that historical (e.g., colonization) and social events (e.g., immigration) had on a speech community and that led them to produce the sounds that they do. The majority of studies on soundscapes are mainly interested in assessing the linguistic diversity in metropolitan cities and finding reasons behind this phenomenon. The concept of linguistic soundscaping was introduced to describe the type of studies that “document which languages people use orally, where they use them and for which purpose” (Scarvaglieri *et al.*, 2013, p.45).

The dynamic nature of the world necessitates the constant investigation of the variable of language, especially colloquial speech as it is constantly changing, and new varieties and tokens are inserted, consciously or unconsciously, in everyday speech. The present research project is greatly interested in uncovering the level of linguistic diversity in France and intends to use these results to conclude the sociolinguistic status of English in French TV advertisements.

1.2 Linguistic Landscape

The *linguistic landscape* is the second variable that this research paper deals with; therefore, similar to the *linguistic soundscape*, it should be defined. The present study will adopt the same structure as most modern studies that take interest in studying language within a social context. It is by providing a parallel introduction to the two variables (linguistic landscape, linguistic

soundscape) that we set a strong theoretical background upon which we can build our study and discussion. The present section will discuss the same titles (etymology and neologism, methods of linguistic landscaping, capturing written linguistic diversity through linguistic landscaping) that were introduced for the linguistic soundscape variable in the previous section. Because the notion of linguistic landscape has already been tackled in our previous paper (Taouss, 2021), we will recall the sections that are essential and relevant for the present paper.

1.2.1 Etymology and neologism

One of the first steps one needs to consider before pursuing in any type of research is defining the variables at hand. Before consulting the dictionary definition, looking at the etymology of a word allows us to understand the context and changes that a word has been through over the years. The history of a word may reveal different phenomena and help researchers understand the reasons for which it settled on the definition that can be found in dictionaries nowadays. In his paper, Gorter (2006, p.82) reports that:

The word landscape was first recorded in English in 1598. It is a loan from Dutch where it is a term used by painters who were around that time becoming famous for their skills in the landscape genre. The Dutch word *landschap* means ‘region’ or ‘tract of land’ but in the 16th century obtained artistic significance as ‘a picture depicting a scenery on land’, which meaning then was brought over into English. It took 34 years after the first recorded use of landscape in English until the word was used for natural scenery.

Gorter (2006) shows the similarity in the term *landscape* across different languages. In his paper, he closely follows the term and reports a series of borrowings from one language to another. Inspired by the analysis provided by Gorter (2006), the following table explains how different languages either borrowed or translated the root to come up with the term landscape in their language.

Germanic languages	German	<i>Landschaft</i>	Borrowing of the root ‘Land’ from English.
	Danish	<i>Landskab</i>	
	Norwegian	<i>Landskap</i>	
	Farsian	<i>lânskip</i>	
Romance languages	French	<i>Paysage</i>	*Translation of the root of the word landscape (<i>land</i>) into the Romance
	Italian	<i>Paesaggio</i>	
	Spanish	<i>Paisaje</i>	

	Portuguese	<i>Paisagem</i>	Languages as <i>pays</i> . *The word was borrowed from the Northern countries to transfer the same double meaning of tract of land and a picture thereof.
	Catalan	<i>Paisatge</i>	
	Romanian	<i>Peizaj</i>	
Isolate languages	Basque	<i>paisaia</i>	Usage the loan from Spanish <i>Paisaje</i> .
Finoergric languages	Finnish	<i>Maisema</i>	Use the root 'land'.
	Hungarian	<i>Tájkep</i>	
	Latvian	<i>Ainava</i>	
	Lithuanian	Lithuanian	
Slavic languages	Polish	<i>Krajobraz</i>	The root for region or territory is used (<i>kraj-</i>).
	Czech	<i>Krajobraz</i>	
	Slovak	<i>Krajina</i>	
	Slovene	<i>Krajina</i>	
	Serbian	<i>Krajolik</i>	
	Croatian	<i>Krajobraz</i>	
	Russian	<i>Peyzazh landshaft</i>	The root for region or territory is used (<i>kraj-</i>).

Table 4: Borrowing and loaning of the term landscape across languages

The term linguistic landscape was coined by Landry & Bourhis (1997) and referred to “the visibility and salience of languages on public and commercial signs in a given territory or region” (p.23). Understanding the term can be realized by combining the literal meaning of both tokens. Going back to the dictionary, the term *linguistic* as an adjective means “connected with language or the scientific study of language”¹⁰, whereas the term landscape as a noun has two definitions. The first one refers to a complete scenery that can be seen from one standpoint. The second definition is one that refers to a picture or a painting that usually contains natural scenery. Gorter (2006) further highlights this duality in meaning and reports its importance in differentiating what is given and what is intentionally represented by human subjects. The two definitions share a

¹⁰ Source: Oxford dictionary.

common point which is the fact that a landscape refers to an outside/public environment to which individuals are exposed. Focusing on the linguistic part of the landscape makes the language portrayed in public the core of the field of linguistic landscape. The first definition can be assigned to the studies that are concerned with the language or languages used in signs which can be analyzed in terms of vocabulary, grammar, and syntax. The second definition can be related to the studies that try to evaluate how language is represented in a certain community. The latter can tell us so much about different phenomena such as multilingualism, ethnolinguistic vitality, language policy, language planning, and so on. Because cities are very rich in terms of language, the term *cityscape*¹¹ came to appear in certain studies that investigate the manifestation of language in billboards, public signs, and shop signs. Primarily, linguistic landscape was exclusive to “the language of public road signs, advertising billboards, street names, place names, commercial shop signs, and public signs on government buildings that combine to form the linguistic landscape of a given territory, region, or urban agglomeration” (Landry & Bourhis, 1997, p.23). However, after the establishment of a decent body of literature in the field of linguistic landscape, different researchers came to define the linguistic landscape more inclusively, in a way that combines all the elements through which individuals can be visually exposed to language. Dailey *et al.* (2005) report that the linguistic landscape goes beyond what we are exposed to in the outside environment (billboards, road signs, commercial shop signs...), and can include other elements such as the advertisements that we can find in magazines and that we receive in our mailbox regularly. Other devices that are inside our homes can also be seen as a source for a linguistic landscape (Dailey *et al.*, 2005). For instance, TV advertisements can also be included in the linguistic landscape. It is through TV that we are exposed to language, ideologies, and a whole hidden agenda of language policy and language planning.

1.2.2 Methods of linguistic landscaping

For many years, the study of the linguistic landscape was exclusive to the public space, that is, billboards, public signs, shop signs, and so forth. Collecting this type of data was easy since researchers can collect massive amounts of data at a low cost using their electronic devices; however, this process created many methodological issues such as that of representativeness. For

¹¹ Some researchers saw that the term *cityscape* can replace the notion of linguistic landscape when we are talking about urban areas. Gorter (2006, p.83) reports that “the word ‘*cityscape*’ might be introduced as a better term. It is a term that is already in use in the fields of cultural geography and urban development with an academic journal with ‘*Cityscape*’ as its title. Since in most places the cityscape due to globalization will not be monolingual, the term ‘*multilingual cityscape*’ would be the most precise. An objection against this neologism could be that it does not translate equally well into other languages”.

example, investigating the linguistic landscape of metropolitan cities such as Tokyo can be challenging because researchers cannot make generalizations on these cities by only studying the linguistic landscape of a few neighborhoods. In this case, choosing certain areas to study the linguistic landscape should be justified, and the extent to which the researcher can make generalizations should be discussed. Because this research paper is interested in TV as a linguistic landscape, the process of data collection consists of recordings of TV time. This method is time consuming because it takes many hours of data collection and transcription, but it is a method that allows us to make generalizations based on a large corpus.

In linguistic landscaping, determining the direction that the study is going to take is necessary. This decision affects the process of data collection as well as the analysis and discussion of findings. Studies in the field of linguistic landscape can be classified into top-down processes, which exclusively investigate signs provided by the government and institutional parties, and bottom-up processes, which are interested in signs provided by private businesses and services. The classification of the research processes allows us to look at data from different perspectives. On one hand, top-down processing enables us to look at the sociolinguistic perspective, one that allows us to study the dynamics of languages within urban spaces, for example, by looking at the dominant language, the manifestation of international languages, how the state views and tolerates minority languages and how much it contributes to their ethnographic vitality. On the other hand, bottom-up processing uncovers perceptions, attitudes, and perspectives of individuals that inhabit the landscape.

1.2.3 Capturing written linguistic diversity through linguistic landscaping

The linguistic landscape is a true manifestation of how a speech community and authorities view other languages and dialects. Investigating the varieties that the landscape offers allows researchers to discover different social phenomena caused by linguistic diversity. For instance, studies that took interest in this matter were able to uncover the level of multilingualism in different cities. *The International Journal of Multilingualism* combines all the findings from these research papers and brings an understanding of the reasons, the causes, and the future of multilingualism in many metropolitan cities.

Another interesting phenomenon that is captured by linguistic diversity is ethnographic vitality - “the vitality of an ethnolinguistic group is that which makes a group likely to behave as a distinctive and active collective entity in intergroup situations” (Giles *et al.* 1977, p.308). This

linguistic phenomenon is usually concerned with minority languages, varieties, and dialects that exist along with a dominant language. Revealing the functions and the number of linguistic tokens from different languages helps researchers understand the attitudes, perceptions, and sometimes frustrations of minorities inhabiting a certain geographical space.

It can be said that the linguistic landscape is a strong element that is worth investigating. The fact that written language exists in our living environment and is there to last for weeks, months, or years is a constant reminder that attention should be brought to it because it most definitely affects, consciously or unconsciously, individuals on a deep psychological and neurological level.

1.3 Functions of the linguistic soundscape and landscape

The study of any variable requires familiarity with its functions and its purpose in the studied context. Like defining the studied phenomenon, providing the role that it plays within a social context is essential. In this section, we will present the two main functions of linguistic items produced in soundscapes and landscapes. Because this section precedes our results section, we cannot discuss the function of English in the French linguistic landscape and soundscape. Therefore, at this stage, we will define these two functions and report the literature of studies from different social contexts. This section will combine the functions of the linguistic landscape and soundscape because, regardless of the means through which language is presented (written, spoken), the outcome (function) is the same. That is to say that whether language is portrayed in text or oral form, the output consists of linguistic tokens. Because we previously discussed the functions of the linguistic landscape in last year's research project (Taouss, 2021), some literature will be recalled in this section.

1.3.1 Informational function

As the name suggests, the informational function tries to communicate an idea. In many contexts, soundscapes and landscapes are essential in transmitting information. Many studies took interest in the investigation of English as a foreign language or English as a *lingua franca*¹² in the public space (e.g., public transportation, TV, social media) of different social context. For instance, the study by Sifianou (2010) studies the linguistic landscape of Athens, Greece, focusing on the employment of EFL as a means to provide information in subways. The informational function of

¹² **Lingua franca** also known as a bridge language refers to a common language between individuals that do not share the same mother tongue.

the linguistic soundscape has also been linked to public art. Researchers claimed that combining visual art as well as the auditory aspect of the environment elevates the quality of our environment and provides a much more enjoyable experience for individuals. A remarkable project entitled *l'oreille [é]tendue* (the extended ear) was created in 2013 in Quebec City and has the purpose of creating “auditory points, selected to represent a diversity of urban sound atmosphere, prompt walkers to become aware of the sound events that usually go unnoticed”¹³. Hearing devices are placed on the route between parc Victoria and Bassin Louise in Quebec City, inviting people to listen to them during their stroll. The short auditory presentation is supposed to orient the listener’s attention to different points of the city. This process is said to help people become more present and invites them to linger over sounds that usually escape them. Furthermore, it is said that “these stops in space aim to create a field of experimentation, where it will be possible to listen to isolated events, camouflaged in the auditory thickness generated by our daily activities”¹⁴. The images below show two of the many audio devices that have been placed between Victoria Park and Bassin Louise in Quebec City:



¹³ <https://bechardhudon.com/project/loreille-etendue/>

¹⁴ Original citation : Ces arrêts dans l’espace visent à susciter un terrain d’expérimentation, où il sera possible de prêter l’oreille à des événements isolés, camouflés dans l’épaisseur auditive générée par nos activités quotidiennes. (<https://bechardhudon.com/project/loreille-etendue/>)



Image 3: Auditory devices presented in the soundscape of Quebec City¹⁵

In the landscape, we can say that the written language is more prominent because its presence is permanent and may last for days, weeks, and even years as opposed to the spoken information that is only available during the moment of speaking. Taking this idea into account helps us understand that the landscape holds more importance, especially in social contexts that necessitate providing information. For instance, as our results revealed (Taouss, 2021), in TV advertisements, written messages that have an informational function are essential. Due to the important role that these visually perceived linguistic items play, advertisers use them to communicate their identity and beliefs to the general public. Landry & Bourhis (1997) have reported that the informational function of the linguistic landscape stands for the amount of information that is deduced from the geographical region and the speech community that inhabits it. Furthermore, the visual representation of language marks borders between groups that speak different languages or dialects. The fact that the linguistic landscape is used to establish clean borders between individuals that belong to different speech communities further strengthens the ethnolinguistic vitality of people living in a certain territory and brings awareness to foreigners by letting them know the official language of the community they are entering.

Taking the case of public and commercial signs represented in monolingual linguistic landscapes, their informational function is to communicate on the products and services provided by public or private establishments. Undoubtedly, this is not the case in most countries where phenomena such as bilingualism or multilingualism exist on a large scale. In that case, the linguistic landscape may be confusing to out-group members who are referred to in the field of

¹⁵ Photos: Catherine Bédard & Sabin Hudon.

sociology as individuals that do not identify with the society they live in.

Nowadays, linguistic variation in the linguistic landscape has been adopted by many countries due to the growing number of tourists and immigrants living in a society that speaks a language that differs from their mother tongue. For the most part, it can be said that the informational function of any linguistic landscape is to show the range of languages that can be understood and used by different members of a speech community. Bouhris (1992) reports that the linguistic diversity that is manifested in the linguistic landscape can tell us a lot about the language dynamics of a certain society (dominant/weak groups). The domination of one language over another can tell us about the socio-economic status, the power, and the superiority of the speech community of the dominant language in the linguistic landscape. In the case of the coexistence of many languages with different statuses within a region or territory, power and dominance manifest themselves through the number of languages represented in the linguistic landscape. The latter was discussed by Landry & Bourhis (1997) who claim that there are three cases where a powerful speech community represents their language within a multilingual society. The first case is when the majority of the public signs are in the dominant language, whereas the language of the less powerful groups exists in few public signs. The second case is when the public signs are exclusively in the language of the dominant speech community while the less powerful language is displayed in signs of private businesses and services. The last case is where the language of the dominant and the weaker group coexist in signs in the linguistic landscape. Nevertheless, this coexistence comes with a limitation: even though the two languages are displayed on the same signs, one of them is more noticeable through its presentation (shape, form, color).

Looking into the language dynamics of different bilingual and multilingual societies, studies have come to show that the concept of a *dominant speech community* does not necessarily mean a community with the greatest number of speakers of a certain language. In the context of the linguistic landscape, the dominance of a speech community is related to the power, authority, and supremacy of a group even though they are small in terms of the number of their language speakers.

It is important to acknowledge that every nation is conscious of the language diversity in its linguistic landscape. The fact that there are fields such as language policy and language planning that try to regulate language use within a society does not mean that there are parties that try to erase minority languages compared to languages with international weight (e.g., English).

Linguistic diversity is inevitable in today's world where phenomena such as social media, immigration, and asylum are constantly bringing new speech communities. It has been reported that "the diversity of languages present in the linguistic landscape can be seen as a concrete manifestation of the linguistic and cultural diversity of the ethnographic groups inhabiting a particular administrative territory or region" (Landry and Bourhis, 1997, p.27), which explains one of the reasons for linguistic diversity in the linguistic landscape. The national institute of statistics and economic studies reports that in 2019, 6.7 million immigrants lived in France, which makes 9.9% of the total population. Linking the linguistic landscape to the previously mentioned statistics will allow us to understand how these immigrants represent their culture and linguistic identity through their businesses which further feed the linguistic diversity in the landscape.

1.3.2 Symbolic function

When talking about symbolism in the context of language, researchers highlight the use of languages as a symbol to portray specific ideologies, beliefs, or conceptualizations. The manner through which languages are portrayed in the public space can give us an idea about different social phenomena that may exist in a given society. For example, Scarvaglieri *et al.* (2013) report that English holds a symbolic value in Lange Reihe, Hamburg, which led them to characterize "the Lange Reihe as a place of "gentrified multilingualism"" (p.69).

Because sound has a phonological dimension, researchers are able to deduce the dialects, accents, and varieties of the used languages. For instance, the analysis of the pronunciation patterns of spoken English allows us to uncover the perceptions and attitudes around the variety of English used. It is through the linguistic soundscape that we detect where a speech community is situated within the three concentric circles (Kachru, 1992): the Inner Circle¹⁶, the Outer Circle¹⁷, and the Expanding Circle¹⁸. In investigating the status of EFL in the Greek metro system, Sifianou (2010) concluded that the English used in Athens, Greece, is different from that in the inner circle (e.g., US, UK, Canada, Australia, New Zealand). That is, the English in the studied context holds a local impact which can be portrayed by the non-native pronunciation and the grammatical structures used. The analysis of the linguistic soundscape through public transports in Tokyo, Japan, shows totally different results from Sifianou's (2010). Backhaus (2015) concludes that the English used in the linguistic landscape of Tokyo carries no local impact. In fact, he reports that it

¹⁶ The Inner circle contains the countries where English is the mother tongue.

¹⁷ The Outer Circle contains the countries where English is a second language: usually previous colonies of countries from the inner circle.

¹⁸ The Expanding Circle contains countries where English is considered as a foreign language.

is “modeled after an inner-circle variety of English that can best be described as North American” (p.197-198). The results of these two studies show that the use of English differs from one context to another. This variation that is deduced through a purely linguistic analysis can later be analyzed from social, political, and economic perspectives for more in-depth discussion.

In the linguistic landscape, the symbolic function goes beyond the simple and clear written meanings, to include the pragmatic meaning that a linguistic landscape tries to portray. The symbolic value targets individuals living in multilingual speech communities and is responsible for building ideologies around their linguistic status. Landry & Bourhis (1997) have reported that the absence or presence of a minority language has the symbolic function of creating feelings of acceptance or rejection from a dominant speech community. The presence of minority languages communicates to the in-group³ communities that the state acknowledges their language and is valuing and contributing to their ethnolinguistic vitality.

In their study, Cenoz & Gorter (2008) claim that the symbolic and affective functions of language are also used in advertising, giving the example of vending machines in the city of San Sebastian, Spain, that have instructions in Spanish and Basque. It is acknowledged that speakers of Basque speak and read Spanish; therefore, it can be said that the usage of Basque was not supposed to have an informative or a communicative purpose, but a symbolic one, that is, to show respect and appreciation towards the Basque-speaking community. In their analysis of the symbolic function of the linguistic landscape, Landry & Bourhis (1997) adopted a sociolinguistic perspective that directly links language to the dynamics of a given society. Notions like dominance, institutional power, and ethnographic vitality are all themes that can be discovered through the study of the symbolic function of linguistic elements. As this paper will strive to show, the English language used in advertisements carries an important symbolic function. It has been reported that “English is used for its symbolic function to express senses of luxury, technological advancement and internationalism” (Sutthinaraphan, 2016, p.1). Supporting the latter is the study by Stroud & Mpendukana (2009) that adopts a semiotic approach to analyze commercial signage in South African townships. Their study shows that, in sites of necessity, English was for the most part not used, whereas in luxury areas English was highly used in signs that promote different products. As will be discussed in the next two parts of this paper, acknowledging the symbolic function behind the usage of the English language in TV advertisements will give us an insight into the sociolinguistic status of this language, the reasons, and the purpose behind its use.

1.4 The sociolinguistic context in France

As is the case in academic research, providing a framework and introducing the setting where our study takes place is essential. Laying out a clear description of the linguistic landscape and soundscape will allow us to understand the linguistic state in France and the level of linguistic diversity that it displays. The present section will tackle three main subsections. The first will discuss the English language and the reasons behind its spread in a number of countries including France. The second subsection will bring to light the main actors in the linguistic landscape and soundscape in France. That is, all the parties in the top-down processing that contribute to decision-making regarding the languages presented to the public. The last and final section is exclusive to discussing the linguistic compromise made between different authorities operating from different sectors in society. Using the provided literature, we will try to understand how France tries to go about the dilemma between the need to present English as it is the language of business and communication and the need to save the French national identity.

1.4.1 Globalization and the spread of English in the linguistic landscape and soundscape of France

In our study, we exclusively chose to investigate the representation of the English language for many reasons. Mainly because of the powerful nature of English in today's world and its presence in advertisements even though there are many minority languages that could have been used to target a large audience. In this part, we will address the display of English as a foreign language and the reasons behind its usage and spread in different linguistic landscapes and soundscapes. One of the main reasons why English appears in advertisements worldwide, even in non-English speaking countries, is due to Global Consumer Culture Positioning¹⁹. This strategy is explained by the fact that “advertising featuring the idea that consumers all over the world consume a particular brand or appealing to certain human universals might invest the brand with the cultural meaning of being a conduit to feeling at one with global culture” (Alden *et al.*, 1999, p.77). That is, by building a shared identity through language (English), advertisers can promote their products worldwide.

Indeed, adopting one language can open up brands to international markets and result in financial success. Yet, the question that we must answer is: why English? Going back to the quantitatively driven literature shows that English is the most learned language with over 743 million non-native

¹⁹ Global Consumer Culture Positioning is a strategy that “identifies the brand as a symbol of a given global culture” (Alden *et al.*, 1999, p.77).

speakers (Ethnologue, 21st edition). Because of the rising number of its learners and speakers worldwide, English has become, a *lingua franca par excellence*. This statement further supports the idea that “English in advertising is a vehicle of communicating such global culture.” (J. Hornikx and F. van Meurs, 2020, p.96). Therefore, presenting English in the linguistic landscape and soundscape does not seem out of range as it is a language that is spoken by most individuals worldwide and because the majority of the tokens used in advertisements are included in a lexicon of a global shared culture.

The literature reports that the English language has some properties that contribute to promoting and selling goods. Slogans in English showed phonological, morphological, lexical, syntactic, and semantic aspects that have a positive effect on the targeted viewers (Skračić & Kosović, 2016). In addition to its aesthetic effect, English is considered the primary language in business communication. Nickerson (2005, p.377) (qt. In Podhovnik, 2012, p.5) supports this claim and reports that:

English is used as a communication tool like mathematics and numbers. English has a useful function in that it is utilitarian and idealistic. In other words, English is important in an international business context and makes communication and mutual understanding possible. English in business communication is regarded as a neutral, cultureless language to be used to be successful in business. It is also seen as the international business language, which makes it unnecessary for native speakers of English to learn a foreign language.

The popularity of the English language, especially within the field of advertising, has resulted in its appearance in linguistic landscapes and soundscapes even in non-English speaking countries (e.g., France). This representation is not always tolerated and welcomed with open arms. Resistance from different parties can take place as the idea of globalization might seem threatening and considered as a loophole that will lead to the loss of national identity. Further sociolinguistic studies investigating language attitudes should be conducted in France as it constitutes rich grounds for different linguistic phenomena.

1.4.2 Actors in the linguistic landscape and soundscape of France

In any country, language representation is subjected to many regulations that come from top-down processing. These entities hold the ultimate power to control the amount and the matter through which foreign language is presented. In France, the linguistic landscape and soundscape

are regulated by the Toubon law. This law claims that the use of English is only legal if used in “music sound tracks in television and radio commercials, corporate and brand names, and [f]oreign product names and specialties familiar to the general public” (D. King, 2008, p.216, as cited by K. Bhatia, 2008, p.558). According to this law, we only see regularities regarding the type of tokens that can be in English, but no claims regarding their amount. The CSA is another powerful entity whose claims go hand in hand with the laws of the French republic and whose purpose is to preserve the national identity through preserving the French language. The CSA tolerates the use of English with the condition of providing French translations for every linguistic item used in English. Similar to the Toubon law, in the CSA reports we do not find literature that specifies the percentage allowed for English language presentation. The latter gives room to channel directors, especially private channels, to display advertisements with a remarkable amount of English. For instance, the private channel M6 shows about 21,5% of English which is a statistically significant amount (Taouss, 2021).

Political speech is also one of the actors that communicate language attitudes and the level of tolerance towards foreign languages. In her presidential campaign, Marine Le Pen promises a linguistic project that promotes the French language and eliminates any foreign languages. Her project consists of banning the use of foreign languages in advertising and communication. These negative attitudes towards foreign language representation further support the sensitivity of the linguistic landscape and soundscape in France and the need to research the matter.

The discourse around language was given more attention in 2022. The French Academy²⁰ published a report on April 3rd, 2022, warning that the increasing use of English by organizations will lead to social division. The report discusses in detail the phenomenon of anglicism²¹ and its dangerous effects that may lead to the erasure of the French language. After establishing our results, the French Academy’s report will be revisited and used to discuss our data in the third part of this research paper.

Printed or broadcasted media are other actors in the linguistic landscape. The choice of the articles’ titles that discuss linguistic policies is enough to build negative or positive attitudes towards foreign language representation. For instance, titles such as *The French Academy goes to*

²⁰ The principal French council for matters pertaining to the French language.

²¹ “The term anglicism is often used as a generic name to describe the occurrence of English language elements in other languages” (Onysko, 2007, p.10-11).

*war against anglicisms*²² (*Le Temps*), *The French Academy denounces the increasingly “invasive” use of anglicisms*²³ (*France Bleu*), and *The French Academy sounds the alarm*²⁴ (*La Presse*) portray a negative attitude towards English language representation. A thorough discussion that combines our results, as well as the role of the previously mentioned actors in the linguistic landscape and soundscape in France, will further explain the link between language attitudes, language representation, and media, especially TV.

1.4.3 Linguistic landscaping and soundscaping and field compromise: politics, economy, culture and sociology

Designing the linguistic landscape and soundscape of a certain speech community is a complex process that should not be underestimated. The difficulty lies in establishing a compromise between the different areas in society that control, to a certain degree, language representation. Since language is a complex construct that implies many pragmatic meanings, its representation is monitored directly or indirectly by different parties such as politics, economy, culture, and sociology. Because they have different goals, usually, these sectors do not agree when it comes to the matter and the amount of English in the linguistic landscape and soundscape. A compromise is then made based on laws and the powerful parties' attitudes towards foreign language presentation.

Sectors in society are divided into two classifications: the ones that support diversity in the linguistic landscape and soundscape and those that are opposed to it. On one hand, French politics and culture are elements that are highly against the inclusion of English in the daily life of French citizens through the linguistic landscape and soundscape. As seen in the previous sections, politics is a sector that tends to be against linguistic diversity and considers it as a threat to national identity (section 1.4.2). The French cultural identity is also one that is known to not be very welcoming towards the English language. This can be noticed in language attitudes and the sensitivity to foreign languages, especially English. On the other hand, the economic sphere and the field of sociology are more tolerant towards the English language. The fact that English is a key element to economic success means that its representation is favored by advertisers. Sociology is also a sector that is tolerant toward linguistic diversity and believes in the effect of globalization and inclusion of English-speaking minorities in France.

²² Original title: L'Académie française part en guerre contre les anglicismes

²³ Original title: L'Académie française dénonce l'utilisation de plus en plus “envahissante” des anglicismes

²⁴ Original title: L'Académie française sonne l'alarme

As seen above, goals differ and so do motives. As a result, conflict is always taking place. The discourse regarding foreign language representation is one that is present worldwide. Nevertheless, according to the country's attitudes (tolerance or rejection) towards foreign language representation, the agreement can either go smoothly or strenuously. Our paper investigates the case of France which is very interesting due to the level of sensitivity towards the English language. Results will tell us more about how field compromise functions in France and the level of contribution of each discipline, and its effect on the presentation of English in advertisements.

1.5 Advertising through landscapes and soundscapes

In a capitalist world, advertising is inevitable. On a daily basis, individuals are exposed to advertisements that promote goods and seek to win them as loyal customers. The fact that we live in a consumer society made advertising one of the vital elements in economic success. In the 21st century, with the help of technological advancement, advertisements became widespread and impossible to avoid. Written or spoken, conscious or unconscious of its content, advertising affects our daily lives on so many levels. It is necessary to acknowledge that advertising is not innocent in nature, it can have psychological, cognitive, and behavioral effects on individuals. In our paper, we will focus on the language of advertising and analyze the purpose behind using a foreign language such as English and the expected effects that it may have on consumers. In the present section, we will explore the literature around advertising in three main subparts. First, we define the construct and explore the top-down processing that gives an idea about the parties that are responsible for creating advertisements. Second, we will explore TV as a medium of promoting goods and how it can stimulate a cognitive reaction that is linked to memory and language acquisition. Finally, because this paper is interested in providing a comparison between the linguistic landscape and soundscape, we will discuss the difference between the effect of language that we read versus the one that we hear. Exploring this psycholinguistic perspective will, later on, help us discuss our results.

1.5.1 A top-down processing of written and spoken language

Advertising is one of the oldest human-invented concepts. It has been broadly defined as “the activity and industry of advertising things to people on television, in newspapers, on the internet, etc.”²⁵. According to the literature, there are many types of advertising²⁶, but in this research

²⁵ Source: Oxford Learner's Dictionary.

project, we will focus on commercial consumer advertising which refers to the messages that firms pay for to be distributed through mass media. It has been reported that “commercial consumer advertising is perhaps the kind most visible in our society. It commands more expenditure, space and professional skill than any other type and is directed towards a mass audience” (Dyer, 1982, p.3). As can be noticed from the definitions, commercial consumer advertising relies on a top-down²⁷ processing which means in this case the firms to provide the delivered messages. Nevertheless, brands do not have complete freedom when it comes to language choices. As seen in our previous research paper (Taouss, 2021), the linguistic landscape and soundscape of France are regulated and highly controlled by laws (e.g., Toubon Law) that seek to promote and preserve the French language.

Undoubtedly, the top-down processing seeks to eliminate all the foreign languages and provide the viewers with a monolingual linguistic experience. Nevertheless, this is an ideal that cannot be reached with the presence of a powerful and global language such as English. Our quantitative data showed that there is 14,6% of English on the public channel France 2 and 21,5% on the private channel M6 (Taouss, 2021). These results are evidence that French TV contains an important amount of English language tokens which must have been agreed on by the authorities responsible. These results lead us to question this representation and the reasons behind tolerating English, even in small percentages, being present on French national TV. Because English is not used to provide meaning, we deduced that it is linked to many pragmatic effects that are in turn linked to concepts such as globalization and internationalism. Hornikx & van Meurs (2020) report that “ads with English are interpreted as projecting that the company operates internationally as a global player and that the product is used by consumers worldwide” (p.99). They also claim that English provides the meeting point between modernity, success, and globalization. Figure 4 demonstrates the latter:

²⁶ Types of advertising according to Dyer (1982): trade and technical advertisements, prestige, business and financial advertising, small advertisements, Government and charity advertising.

²⁷ A process that involves authorities and powerful entities that are responsible of decision making.

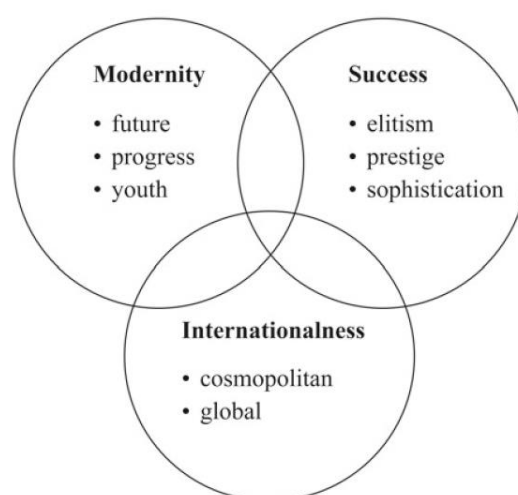


Figure 4: Three dimensions of globalness²⁸ associations with English in advertising

We can say that there is a discrepancy between the need to promote the French language and the need to enter the world of globalization and gain profit. Therefore, efforts from French authorities resulted in keeping a significant amount of French tokens (France 2: 85.3%, M6: 78.5%) and only a few English tokens (France 2: 14.6%, M6: 21.5%). Due to its international power, English is forcing its way into the French linguistic landscape and soundscape which makes us shift the question from “Is English present in the French linguistic landscape and soundscape?” to “How is English present in the linguistic landscape and soundscape?” This question will be answered and discussed in our third part.

1.5.2 TV as a linguistic cognitive stimulant

Looking into the mental processes and the motor functions that are involved when one is exposed to language helps us understand the powerful and permanent effect that language has on individuals. Indeed, this study is interested in investigating the top-down processing and intends to explore the attitudes of authorities towards English language presentation. Yet, we believe that it is essential to provide a short introduction into the bottom-up processes that give an insight on human cognition and the mental processes that occur during language exposure. Exploring the latter will give us an idea about the serious effect that language exposure through media, such as TV, has on individuals. This discussion will allow researchers to recognize the importance of conducting

²⁸ Globalness is usually used within the phrase “perceived brand globalness” (PBG) which is a term coined by Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden (2003) to reflect consumer perceptions of a brand as global (i.e. as widely available and accepted across the world).

research in the fields of linguistic landscape and soundscape as it has a direct effect on speech communities and the development of their cognition, ideologies, culture, and beliefs.

On the level of the brain, two main areas are responsible for language (Tripathi, 2020). Broca's area is responsible for language production whereas Wernicke's area is responsible for language comprehension. These two areas interact through bundles of nerve fibers that reside between the two areas and that allow communication between them. Image 4 shows where Broca and Wernicke's areas are situated in the brain:

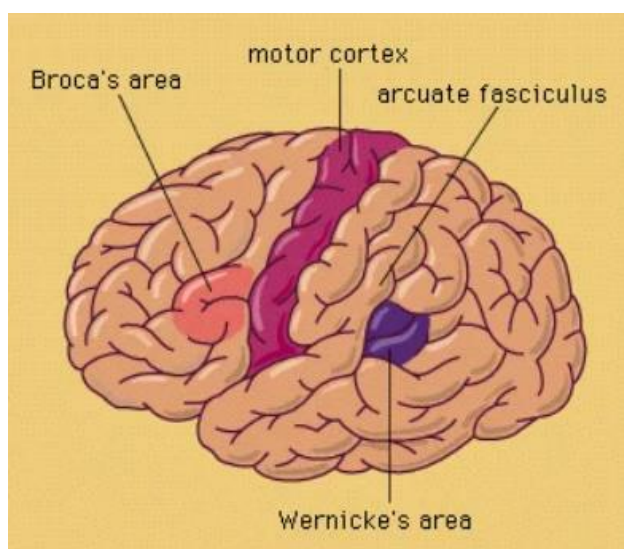


Image 4: Broca and Wernicke's area (*Encyclopedia Britannica*, 1994)

Because this research project focuses on the language used on TV, we will not discuss Broca's area as it is responsible for language production. Therefore, this section will mainly discuss Wernicke's area and how its activation leads to the comprehension of linguistic input (read or written). *Encyclopedia Britannica* reports that:

Wernicke's area stands for: region of the brain that contains motor neurons involved in the comprehension of speech. This area was first described in 1874 by German neurologist Carl Wernicke. The Wernicke area is located in the posterior third of the upper temporal convolution of the left hemisphere of the brain. Thus, it lies close to the auditory cortex. This area appears to be uniquely important for the comprehension of speech sounds and is considered to be the receptive language, or language comprehension, centre.²⁹

²⁹ <https://www.britannica.com/science/Wernicke-area>

As seen above, in each exposure to language, Wernicke's area is activated and tries to decode linguistic input (phonology, syntax, grammar, lexicon, pragmatics) in a matter of seconds to come up with meaning. Undoubtedly, the processes that take place in Wernicke's area are fascinating and more complex than those that we present in this section. This consistent exposure to language leads to the acquisition of linguistic items in one's native language or foreign language. Due to brain plasticity³⁰, exposure to the same linguistic items or grammatical structures leads to strengthening the neurological paths that result in remembering or acquiring them. As a result, when exposed to the same tokens over and over again, their recognition and the understanding of their meaning are almost instant. Taking the example of TV, tokens like *fun*, *cool*, *drive-in* are linguistic items that are repeated daily in many advertisements, which takes very little cognitive effort for the TV viewers to understand after a while of repeated exposure. This constant exposure also leads to the acquisition of linguistic items and may even result in their integration into one's everyday speech (e.g., *cool*, *fun*). All this scientific evidence communicates the importance of linguistic exposure through TV, and the necessity to further conduct scientific research that contributes to understanding the effect of different types of linguistic input on human cognition.

1.5.3 What is seen versus what is heard: a neurolinguistic perspective

It is without a doubt that language representation, being written or spoken affects individuals exposed to it. Because this paper intends to establish a comparison between the linguistic landscape and soundscape, establishing the effect that these types of language exposure have on individuals is essential as it will help us understand the choices made by the entities functioning from the top-down processing. For most people, watching TV is a cognitive process that involves the combination of the two senses: sight and hearing. These two senses are considered the gate through which linguistic input enters to be processed. The latter is highly sophisticated and requires complex cognitive operations that occur in a matter of seconds for the average human being. Exposure to language can go beyond understanding the meaning of linguistic items to acquiring them and storing them in one's mental repertoire, especially for children.

Neurolinguistic research tries to understand sentence processing and brain regions that take part in these mental processes. Based on neuroimaging (fMRI), Sakai (2005) assigned specific areas of the brain that process linguistic items. Image 5 shows this:

³⁰ **Brain plasticity** refers to the brain's ability to change structure and function (Kolb & Whishaw, 1998).

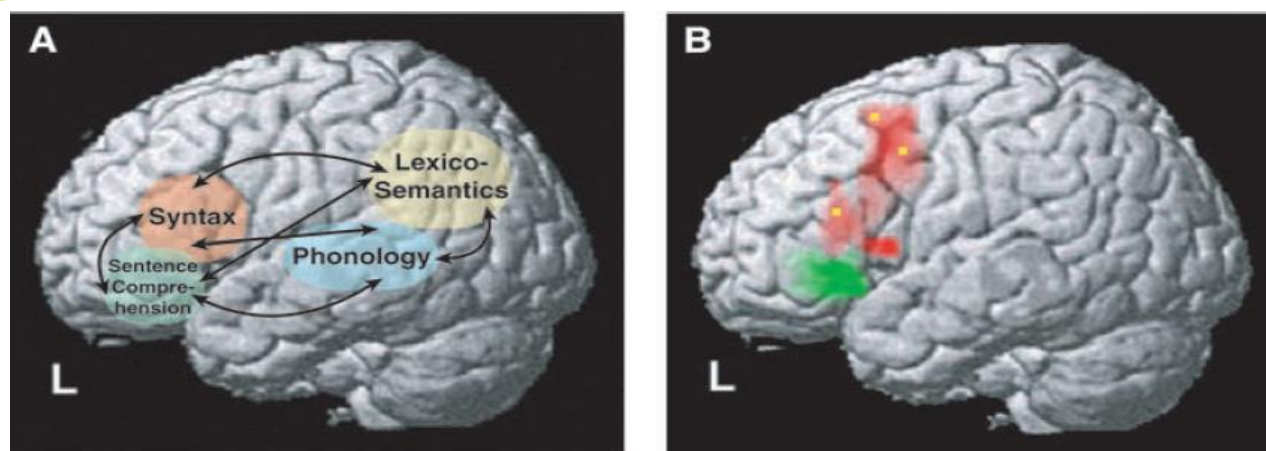


Image 5: (A) Possible network of fundamental linguistic functions in the brain. The exact correspondences between the left (L) brain regions and linguistic factors are still under study. (B) The grammar center and other left frontal regions critically involved in sentence processing.³¹

Many studies took interest in investigating the learning processes that involve language and tried to point out the most efficient ways that lead to effective learning and maximum acquisition of vocabulary items. These studies are essential as they allow us to understand the most effective ways to present language in the linguistic landscape and soundscape for maximum benefits: recalling, remembering, and acquiring linguistic items. Hatami (2017) reports that incidental vocabulary learning³² is higher during activities of reading than listening. He also states that “listeners appeared to forget less within three weeks. Moreover, the increase in the frequency of word occurrence in the text significantly benefitted incidental vocabulary acquisition through reading, but not through listening” (p.61). This evidence implies that the way through which language is presented on TV has an effect on the viewers that are exposed to it. That is, if English is presented in the form of written tokens rather than spoken ones, its effect is stronger as it leads to the acquisition of the presented linguistic items. We will further discuss this phenomenon along with our results to better understand the long-term effect of English language representation and the reasons behind the attitudes and the decision taken by authorities to regulate English language representation in France.

³¹ The green region (the left F3t/F3O) is selectively activated in the comprehension of sentences (16, 17), whereas the red regions (the left lateral premotor cortex, the left dorsal IFG, and the left F3op/F3t) are specifically involved in syntactic processing (15, 26) and can be regarded as the grammar center (Sakai, 2005).

³² The process of learning vocabulary without the intention of doing so or as a by-product of some other activity (Richards & Schmidt, 2002).

PART II: THE STUDY

The present chapter provides a descriptive account of the methodology adopted in this research paper and the results it yields. In discussing the research methodology, we will provide the research questions that this paper intends to answer, a thorough introduction of the process of data collection and analysis using the instrument AntConc. In this section, we will take a close look at our corpora to infer two essential quantitative results: how much English is presented in the linguistic soundscape and landscape of TV advertisements, and the percentage of the diverse characteristics and patterns the English language takes in TV advertisements. These results will provide rich grounds for our third part which will further discuss and make sense of our descriptive and inferential statistics.

2.1 Research methodology

Conducting academic research necessitates the representation of a clear and coherent methodology that contains all the components that allow researchers to come up with meaningful findings. We believe that academic research, especially at the level of methodology, is a linear process; the end of one step is the beginning of another. Therefore, it is highly important to respect the chronological order of tasks, especially in research that relies on quantitative data. Randomization may lead to the wrongful interpretation of the findings. Figure 10 demonstrates the linearity of the methodological process in academic research.

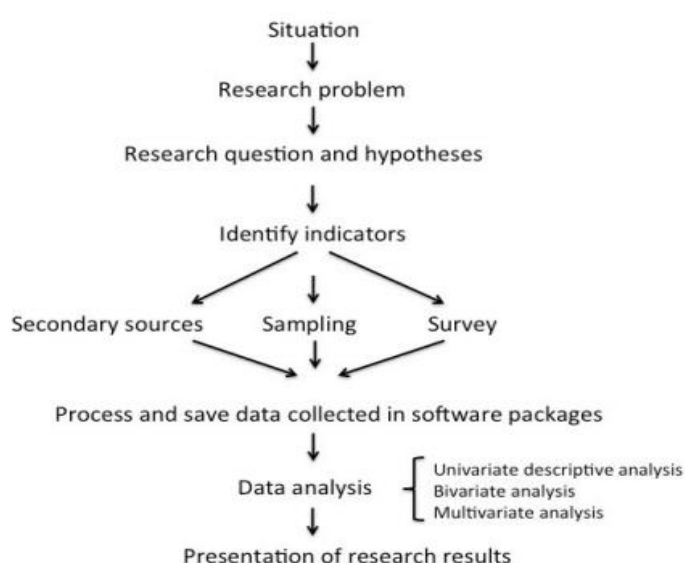


Figure 5: Phases of research (Cárdenas, 2019, p.3)

As seen above, Cárdenas (2019) presents the different steps of academic research in a very simplistic way. It starts by defining the situation which stands for the setting: time, place (when and where) that we intend to investigate. Pointing out the research problem is the second step in conducting research, researchers try to justify why they are trying to investigate a specific phenomenon. Third, come the research questions and hypotheses that narrow down what the researcher is trying to study and gives him/her and the reader a clear vision and an idea of what to expect from the research paper. Cárdenas (2019) reports that there is an interactive model between the research problem (what we know) and the research question(s) (what we want to know). The fact that one is intimately linked to the other, makes it possible to start from one end to theorize about the other.



Figure 6: Rational and research question interactive model

Identifying the variables is an essential step that leads to the choice of the right tools for data collection. Processing the data (corpora) leads to the next step that is the analysis of the findings, which in our case are supported by qualitative data as well. Finally, we arrive at the crucial and most important step of any research paper which is the representation and the interpretation of the results. This step allows researchers to make generalizations and deduce the reasons, characteristics, causes and effects behind the studied phenomena.

2.1.1 Research questions and hypotheses

Investigating any social phenomenon necessitates setting out relevant and clear research questions that will enable the researcher to uncover and know more about his field of expertise. In this research paper, we settled on three research questions. Even though the present research questions have the same structure and quantitative nature as those that we discussed in last year's paper (Taouss, 2021), they investigated a totally different aspect of TV advertisements. While our previous paper (Taouss, 2021) was entirely dedicated to discussing the linguistic landscape and

tried to establish a comparison between English language representation on the public TV channel France 2 versus the private TV channel M6, our paper for this year deals with the linguistic soundscape and landscape as two separate entities, each with its established corpus. In investigating the linguistic soundscape and landscape, we set out three main research questions. The first intends to uncover, quantitatively, how much English is presented in TV advertisements, establishing a comparison between the linguistic soundscape (spoken language) and landscape (written language). The second question is a follow-up to the first question, that is, this question tries to understand the quantitative results through uncovering the patterns and the characteristics of the English used in the soundscape and landscape (trademarks, slogans, product description, or a combination of these functions). Finally, the last question is an invitation to combine the quantitative results and the discussed literature to evaluate the sociolinguistic status of English in France.

According to the review of the literature, research on the matter has never been done in France. This gives more weight to our research paper as it is one which uses an established software (AntConc), controls confounding variables and provides much literature that allows for further discussion on the matter. The present research paper may be considered a valuable addition to the literature in the field of linguistic soundscaping and landscaping as it goes beyond language attitude and perceptions to uncover the ideologies that the top-down processing holds regarding foreign language representation, especially a controversial language such as English, on important platforms such as TV channels. The following are the research questions that this paper intends to address in this section and discuss in the next chapter:

- Q1:** How much English is used in French TV advertisements (the linguistic soundscape versus the linguistic landscape)?
- Q2:** What are the characteristics and the patterns of the English used in the linguistic soundscape and landscape of TV advertisements (trademarks, slogans, product description, dual function)?
- Q3:** How do these results reflect the sociolinguistic status of English in France?

Before beginning our study, we must establish our research hypotheses that predict the relationship between variables. Research hypotheses can be set out in two main ways. The first is through the already discussed literature on the same topic. The second option is in case of the lack of studies that report on the same matter, researchers resort to the null hypotheses. This type of hypothesis is “a typical statistical theory which suggests that no statistical relationship and

significance exists in a set of given single observed variable, between two sets of observed data and measured phenomena.” (Haldar, 2013).

In the case of this research paper, no piece of literature quantitatively compares the linguistic soundscape and landscape. The majority of studies investigate linguistic diversity through the study of public signs that contain linguistic information (e.g., Scarvaglieri *et al.*, 2013, Backhaus, 2015). Therefore, we will adopt two null hypotheses that claim that there is no statistical difference between the representation of the English language in the linguistic soundscape and landscape. The fact that the two main research questions that would allow us to answer the third question have two null hypotheses, means that we cannot provide a third null hypothesis as we cannot expect the results that this study is going to yield. Below are the null hypotheses that this research project intends to test and explore:

H01: There is no statistical significance between the instances of use of English in the linguistic soundscape and landscape of TV advertisements.

H02: The percentages of the characteristics and the patterns that the English language takes in the linguistic soundscape of TV advertisements are similar to those taken in the landscape.

2.1.2 Data collection/ analysis procedure: Corpus data

In the present research paper, we used our already establish corpora (Taouss, 2021). Because this paper is not interested in the public versus private channel comparison, we combined the corpora to form one corpus. The corpus that we are working with is composed of 115 TV advertisements. In compiling our corpus, we adopted a random sampling technique that gives equal chance to all TV advertisements to be included in the corpus. This sampling technique is unbiased and allows for credible, valid, and accurate results. It has been reported that this method has been established in many fields other than applied linguistics such as mathematics, probability, and statistics.

For two months, each week, data was simultaneously collected for two hours on both channels (France 2, M6). The two-hour time span was not exclusive to a specific period of the day. Each week, a different time of the day was chosen to record two hours of TV time on both channels. The randomization of the time of data collection helps us to avoid biased generalizations. For instance, it may be biased to collect data at a specific time frame where the English language is used in the majority of TV advertisements. Therefore, each week, the interval of two hours was recorded at a different time of the day than that of the week prior.

The process of simultaneously recording TV advertisements from two TV channels on one device is challenging. Therefore, we decided to note down the brands and the specificities of the advertisements and look them up on the YouTube platform. The YouTube channel PubTélé contains thousands of TV advertisements issued from different French TV channels. Before deciding to use the advertisements from this YouTube channel, a test of reliability was conducted through several trials with different advertisements recorded from TV and matching them to the ones published in the YouTube channel PubTélé. After confirming the reliability of the advertisements published on the YouTube channel, a corpus was built in the form of an Excel spreadsheet with the trademarks, the link to the advertisement, and the transcription of the linguistic content (spoken and written language) of the TV advertisement (Appendix C).

During the transcription of the data, the tag ‘_Eng’ was put after each English word. This tag/marker allows the software AntConc to recognize the tokens that belong to the English language. Data was transferred to two text documents (.text), one for the spoken language (linguistic soundscape) and the other for the written language (linguistic landscape). The (.text) format was chosen because it is the only type of document that our instrument (AntConc) reads. Processing each corpus through AntConc provided us with input that was translated into percentages and graphs that will be discussed in the next part of this research paper.

2.1.3 Unit of measurement: a word

One of the first steps a researcher needs to consider before initiating any type of research concerning vocabulary size is to define what counts as a *word*. The literature confirms that defining a *word* is neither easy nor simple; as a result, several researchers in the field of applied linguistics define words according to the purpose of their research projects. What is considered as vocabulary reflects the dilemma of defining what a word is.

One way of defining or determining the term *word* is by checking if this *word* is surrounded by two empty spaces in written texts, or by the pauses that occur in a spoken text. This definition has many shortcomings and fails to capture what is truly meant by the term *word* because the latter is indeed a complex notion and involves much more knowledge than just the mere knowledge of spaces or pauses in a written or a spoken text.

Many researchers have tried to find other ways to determine what a *word* is. One of the most popular ways to do this these days, and a very prevalent one in research, especially in vocabulary

research, is the distinction between *types* and *tokens*. The terms *type* and *token* were first introduced by the American logician-philosopher Charles Sanders Peirce (1906) who illustrated the distinction between vocabulary items in a text. According to Milton (2009), the term *token* refers to every instance of occurrence of a word in a text or corpus, including repeated words, while the term *type* refers to the number of different words that compose a text. For example, in the sentence *the boy gave the lady some flowers* there are seven tokens and six types, that is, the two instances of the occurrence of the word *the* count as one in terms of types, while in terms of tokens, there are seven words that compose the sentence. The type/token distinction seems to be favorable and beneficial as it allows researchers to determine the number of words that the learner knows, and even the amount acquired to be fluent in speech or writing (Nation, 2001).

Schmitt's (2010) description of types showed that a further description can be made between *function* and *content* words. Content words, also known as lexical items, are ones that carry propositional content (i.e., meaning), for example, nouns, adjectives, adverbs, and main verbs are content word; whereas functional words carry a grammatical meaning, for example, determiners, conjunctions, prepositions, pronouns, auxiliary verbs, modals, qualifiers, and question words are function words.

As seen above, a word is considered to be a single complete unit that counts as a single token that we store and retrieve at the moment of use. Multi-word units are units that go against this concept of a single word entity. They are words that are composed of two or more entities such as non-compositional idioms whose meaning cannot be deduced from the meaning of the words that compose them. An example of a non-compositional idiom is *kick the bucket* where the meaning of the individual words does not contribute to the meaning of the whole (Croft & Cruse, 2004). Vocabulary acquisition research came to establish that multi-words just like single words can be stored in the lexicon as chunks and be retrieved as such at the moment of use. Gray & Biber (2015) reported that "a good proportion of the language we use every day is composed of prefabricated expressions, rather than being strictly compositional" (p.125). Other researchers reported the popular use of multi-words, for example, a study by Foster (2001) showed that 32.3% of the unplanned native speech analyzed comprised formulaic language, that is, automatic language or already made chunks that are not literal in meaning. Another study that showed similar results is one by Biber *et al.* (1999) that concluded that 30% of the words in their conversation corpus consisted of lexical bundles which are "sequences of word forms that commonly go together in natural discourse" (p.990). This view makes researchers reconsider the fact that multi-word and

single-word entities can be similarly stored in the mental lexicon. These conclusions allow researchers to know the component of the language user's repertoire and find measures and instruments to measure them.

After deciding on the meaning of a word that matches the objective of the study, choosing the unit of measurement is essential. Schmitt (2010, p.188) notes that "different ways of counting lexical items will lead to vastly different results, and a persistent problem in lexical studies is that size figures are reported, but without a clear indication of how they were derived". Word families and lemmas are the most popular units of measurement in vocabulary size research. Bauer and Nation (1993, p.253) define a word family as consisting of "a base word and all its derived and inflected forms that can be understood by a learner without having to learn each form separately", that is, word families include all words related to the headword regardless of their word class. Therefore, teach, taught, teaches, but also teacher or teachable, belong to the same word family. A lemma is an uninflected word from which all inflected words are derived. It "consists of a headword and some of its inflected and reduced forms" (Nation, 2010, p.7). For example, the word forms [cook, cooked, cooking (verb)] should be counted as one lemma, and the word forms [cook (nouns), cooks (noun), cooking (gerund)] form another lemma. The notion of a *lemma* is based on the psycholinguistic finding that the mind stores only the base of the form of the word. Schmitt (2010, p.189) believes that "one good reason to count vocabulary using lemmas concerns the way the mind processes vocabulary", that is, individuals store the bases, and they add the necessary inflections when they want to communicate a certain meaning.

As seen above, the choice of the unit of measurement in vocabulary size research can answer many questions for researchers and shape their methodology and the way they deal with their data. For instance, using word families in studies of vocabulary acquisition will result in overestimating the vocabulary size of learners. For this reason, researchers tend to prefer using lemmas over word families. For example, Milton (2009, p.11) concluded that the lemma count has proved useful in making estimates of the vocabulary knowledge of foreign language learners who are at elementary or intermediate levels of performance. Because our paper does not study the bottom-up process and does not intend to give conclusions on the productive vocabulary of individuals, there is no need to categorize linguistic items in terms of lemmas and word families. According to the purpose of this research paper, words are defined in terms of tokens. This choice is believed to give relevant results and intends to avoid overestimating or underestimating vocabulary size in TV advertisements.

2.1.4 Variable control

In academic research, controlling variables is a crucial and essential step. The present research paper relies on two corpora, the first consists of the written language of TV advertisements, whereas the second consists of the spoken language of advertisements. The written corpus does not contain any confounding variables that may affect and/or shift the outcome of our results, whereas the spoken corpus does. Therefore, it was essential to dissect the produced sounds and choose the ones that should be included in the corpus of the spoken tokens. Providing an anatomy of the linguistic soundscape resulted in categorizing the spoken tokens in TV advertisements as: dialogues, monologues, lyrics and interjections. Because this paper does not only intend to present quantitative results regarding how much English is presented in French TV advertisements, but will try to make sense of the language that is actually communicated and consciously perceived by the viewers, an experiment revealing the linguistic items that should be taken into account is essential. Figure 7 summarizes the different components that form our studied variable (linguistic soundscape).

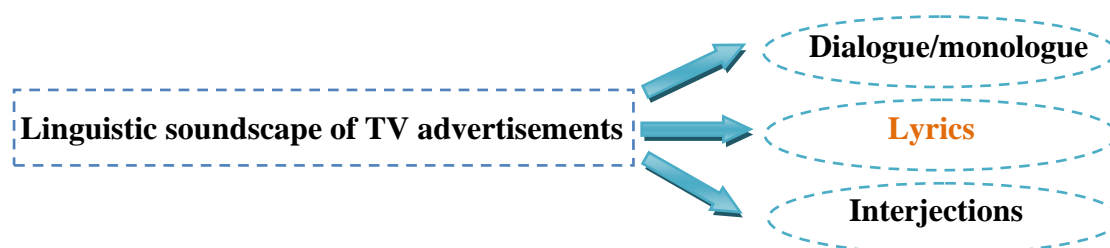


Figure 7: Spoken linguistic components in TV advertisements

According to the purpose of our paper, dialogues, monologues and interjections are all elements that should be included in our corpus as they are important linguistic items that were carefully chosen to communicate an idea, a message, or a function. The lyrics that accompany the music played in advertisements are the only elements that we were reluctant on including in our corpus because if these lyrical items are considered as background noise by TV viewers, adding them will possibly falsify our results by adding so many English tokens that belong to songs played during advertisements.

An experiment was conducted to conclude whether lyrical items should be included in the spoken corpus. Thirty participants (7 males, 23 females) from different linguistic backgrounds (French (17), Spanish (3), Italian (1), Russian (1), Malagasy (1), Bosnian (2), Cameroonian (1), Arabic (4)) watched three randomly picked TV advertisements (30 seconds each) from our spoken corpus. We decided to play each advertisement twice so that we could duplicate the level of

linguistic exposure of the average TV viewer. We believe that a minimum of two instances of linguistic exposure per advertisement can give us results that allow us to draw conclusions and generalizations. After viewing the TV advertisements, the participants were asked to answer a questionnaire (Appendix B). The questions were intended to reveal whether the lyrical items in advertisements are remembered and/or recalled. Figure 8 shows the results:

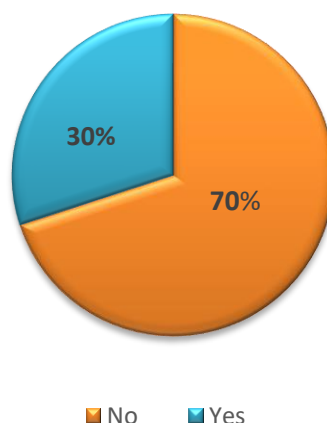


Figure 8: Percentage of participants who remembered and/or recalled the lyrics

As shown in the figure above, the majority of the participants (70% \approx 20 participants) claimed that they did not remember any linguistic items from the songs played in the TV advertisements. Almost one-third of the participants (30% \approx 9 participants) reported that they remember lyrical items that compose the songs in TV advertisements. However, when asked to write down the recalled tokens, most subjects failed to recall any of them as demonstrated below in Figure 9:

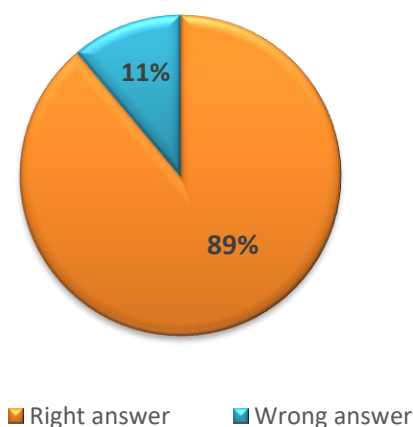


Figure 9: Percentage of participants that recalled the right tokens

Only one out of the nine participants successfully recalled one token from the lyrics. These results allow us to say that, in TV advertisements, tokens that compose the lyrics are neither remembered nor recalled by TV viewers. In conclusion, we can say that only one out of thirty participants was able to recall one token from three TV advertisements. It can be deduced from these data that lyrics are considered as background noise where the included linguistic items do not hold a specific function other than adding an aesthetic value to the advertisements. For all these reasons, we saw that the lyrics ought to be deleted from our spoken corpus.

2.1.5 Instrument

2.1.5.1 AntConc

AntConc is a freeware multi-platform, multi-purpose corpus analysis toolkit that enables researchers to achieve concordance and text analysis. The software AntConc's first release was in 2002. Since then, 19 versions of the software have been released, each time with new updates and more tools for corpus analysis. The present paper utilizes the version AntConc 3.5.9 developed in 2020 by Laurence Anthony, a Professor at Waseda University, Japan. In the field of corpus linguistics, the AntConc software has played a major role in text analysis. The multi-purpose function of the software was reported by Anthony (2005, p.729) as he claims that:

AntConc includes a powerful concordancer, word and keyword frequency generators, tools for cluster and lexical bundle analysis, and a word distribution plot. It also offers the choice of simple wildcard searches or powerful regular expression searches, and has an extremely easy-to-use, intuitive interface.

The software version adopted in this paper is composed of seven main tools that allow for corpus analysis. In an introductory paper, Anthony (2020) provides an overview of the seven functions of AntConc 3.5.9. The table below summarizes the functions reported by Anthony (2020):

Tool	Function
Concordance	This tool shows search results in a 'KWIC' (KeyWord In Context) format. This allows you to see how words and phrases are commonly used in a corpus of texts.
Concordance Plot	This tool shows search results plotted as a 'barcode' format. This allows you to see the position where search results appear in target texts.

File View	This tool shows the text of individual files. This allows you to investigate in more detail the results generated in other tools of AntConc.
Clusters/N-Grams	The Clusters Tool shows clusters based on the search condition. In effect it summarizes the results generated in the Concordance Tool or Concordance Plot Tool. The N-Grams Tool, on the other hand, scans the entire corpus for 'N' (e.g., 1 word, 2 words,...) length clusters. This allows you to find common expressions in a corpus.
Collocates	This tool shows the collocates of a search term. This allows you to investigate non-sequential patterns in language.
Word List	This tool counts all the words in the corpus and presents them in an ordered list. This allows you to find which words are the most frequent in a corpus.
Keyword List	This tool shows which words are unusually frequent (or infrequent) in the corpus in comparison with the words in a reference corpus. This allows you to identify characteristic words in the corpus, for example, as part of a genre or ESP study.

Table 5: Functions of the seven tools of AntConc 3.5.9 (Anthony, 2020)

Different tools may thus be used for different research papers with different research questions. For the purpose of this paper, the tools that are going to be used are: the concordance tool, the concordance plot and the word list. The first tool which is the concordance tool is going to allow us to uncover the frequency of English tokens in the linguistic soundscape and landscape corpus. The concordance plot is the second tool that will be used to provide a visual presentation of the position of English items. This tool is beneficial to this research paper as it will allow us to establish the first visual quantitative comparison between the two corpora before moving to inferential statistics that use the numerical data. The third and final tool that will be used is the word list tool that provides an overall image of our corpora. For each corpus, the word list tool provides the total number of word types which refers to the number of different words that compose the corpus and the number of word tokens. The word list also provides the frequency of each type, but for the purpose of this paper, we will only use the results of the word tokens.

First, the word documents containing the transcriptions of the linguistic soundscape and

landscape are converted to text documents (.text) which is the only document version that could be read by the software AntConc. The files are added as an input to the corpus files section. Figure 10 demonstrates the first step and frames the software option that we are concerned with in this step:

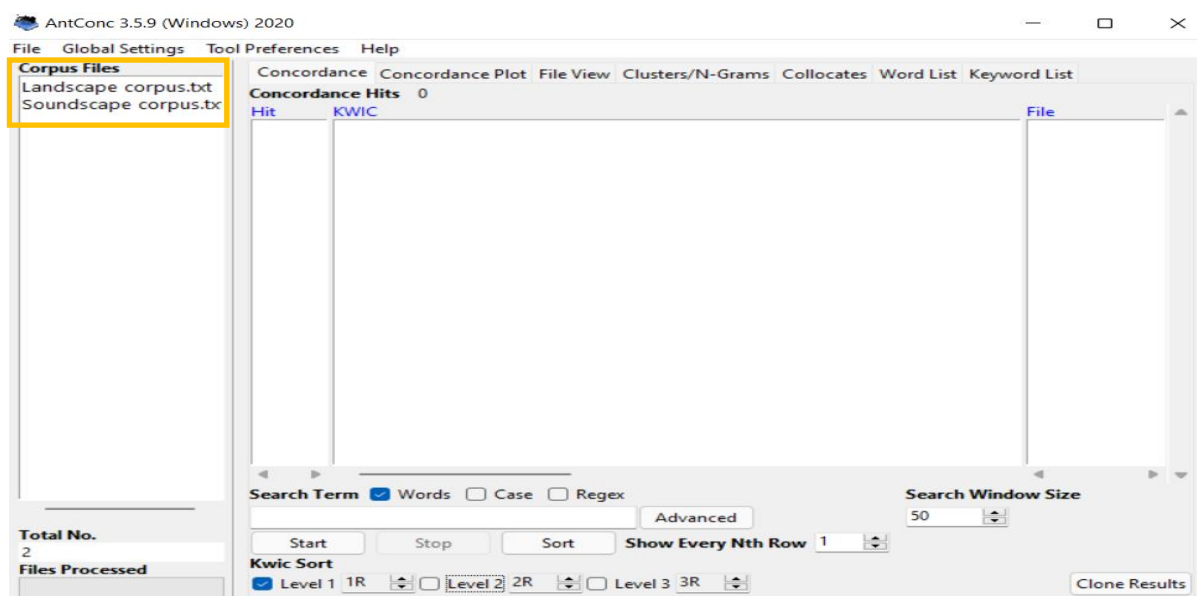


Figure 10: Step (1) adding the corpus file (.text) documents to AntConc

The second step is concerned with setting the parameters to control how the text corpus will appear on the concordance sheet. Going to the global settings, in the section concerning tags, we chose the option “hide tags”. This step will allow us to only view the English words with the Tag _Eng that has been previously attached to them to identify them. Figure 11 demonstrates the second step:

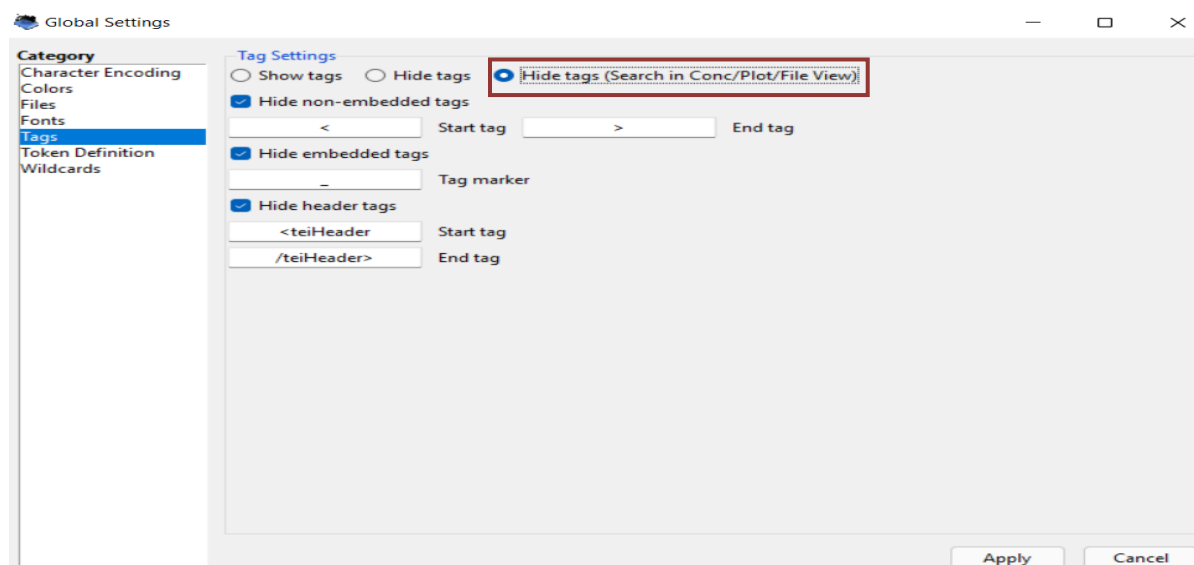


Figure 11: Step (2) Global settings for the used tags

As mentioned in section 2.1.3, in this study, words are defined in terms of tokens. The software AntConc recognizes these tokens based on the fact that they are surrounded by two spaces. The latter causes some shortcomings that should be accounted for in the settings of the software. In our spoken and written corpora, there are many occurrences of the apostrophe that is used for marking the omission of one or more letters, e.g., the contraction of *do not* to *don't*. The second occurrence is the marking of the possessive case of nouns, e.g., the man's book. In our research paper, we intend to count the contractions as two tokens (e.g., don't cheat = don_Eng 't_eng cheat_eng= 3 tokens), whereas the possessive cases must be recognized as one token (the_Eng man's_Eng book_Eng= 2 tokens). This choice was made based on the fact that only units of meaning, that is morphemes that can stand on their own and deliver meaning are going to be included rather than grammatical morphemes that only play a grammatical role. For instance, the morpheme 'not' can stand by itself as opposed to the morpheme 's' for the possessive case, hence its exclusion from our corpus. To establish the latter, we must modify our corpus and the software settings. AntConc recognized the apostrophe as a letter; therefore, two actions need to be done. The first is going back to the corpus and adding the _Eng tag in the case of a contraction to count them as separate tokens (e.g., don't= don_Eng 't_eng= 2 tokens) and leave the possessive cases as they are so that they are read as one token (Man's= Man's_Eng= 1 token). The second step is to go to general settings, token definitions, choose letter in letter token class, and type an apostrophe below the bar named append following definition in the user-defined token class sections. Figure 12 shows these steps:

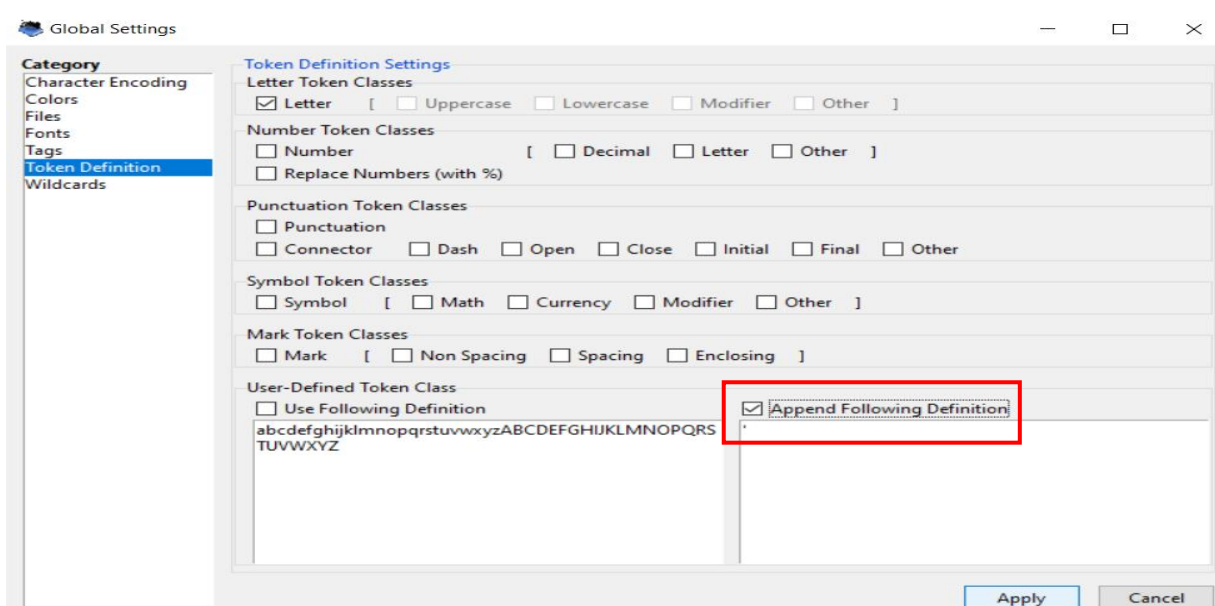


Figure 12: Token definition settings

After setting the parameters for tags and token definition, we go back to the concordance section to set more parameters. For the purpose of this paper, the Search Window Size is reduced from the default value of 50 characters to 0 to be able to only capture the words in the English language in the final results. The parameter of the KWIC Sort is reduced to level 1, which will allow the remaining words (English words) of the target searched tag (_Eng) to appear. Finally, we go to the section of Search Term and type ‘*_Eng’ to start the processing of the text corpus. Figure 13 shows the previously discussed settings:

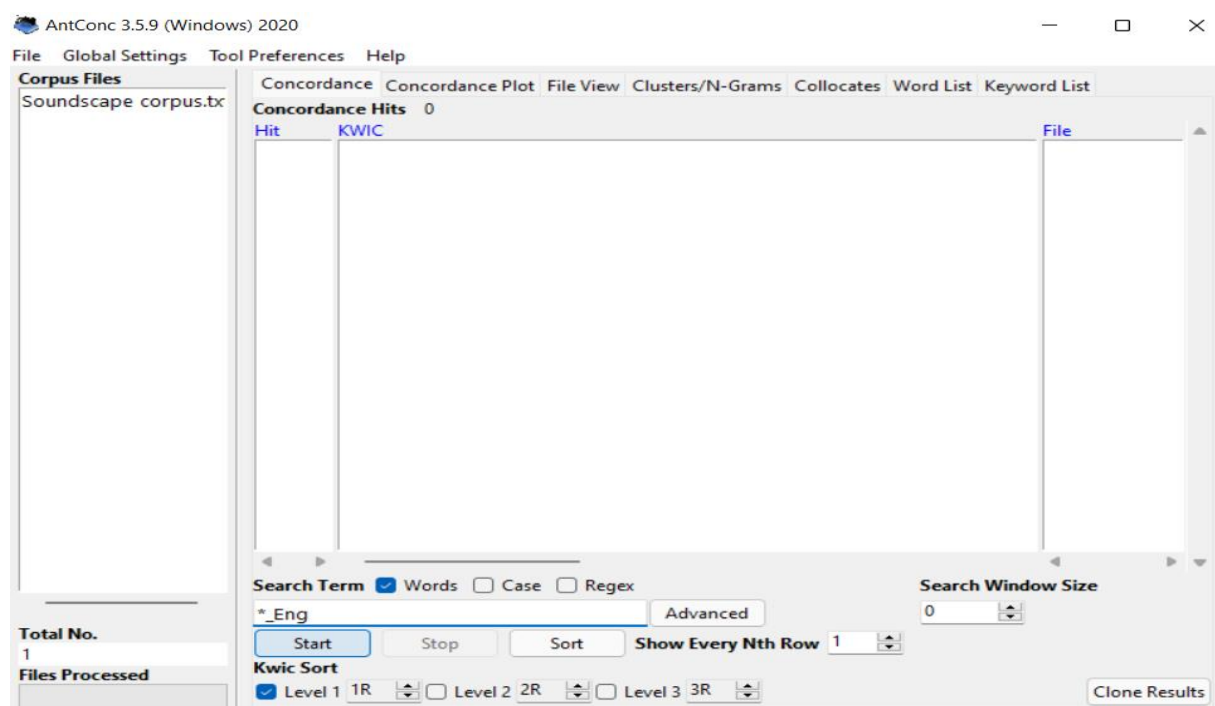


Figure 13: Step (3) further parameter settings on the level of the Concordance

After providing AntConc 3.5.9 with the necessary input as well as the parameters that are customized for this study, a rich output is provided as a result of the software’s corpus processing. The first information that the software equips us with is the concordance hits which stands for the number of English words that are present in the processed corpus. Results are provided in three columns. The first column presents the number of each hit in order of occurrence. The second column is the KWIC (Key Word In Context) which shows the tokens which, according to the purpose of the study, are English words. The final column recalls the name and the type of the processed document. The following figure demonstrates the previously discussed points taking the text corpus of the linguistic soundscape as an example.

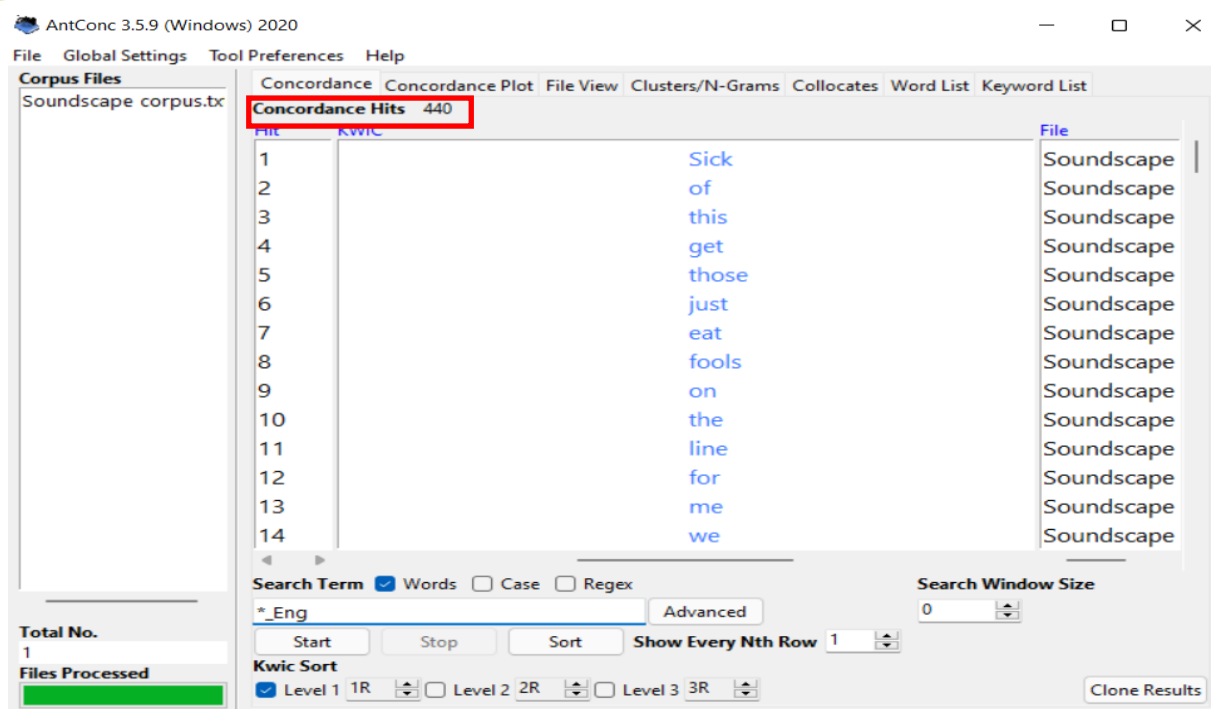


Figure 14: Corpus processing output (Concordance Hits, KWIC)

In our corpora, two elements are of vital importance, the first is the number of tokens in the English language which is provided by the concordance tool, and the second is the number of the total tokens (English and French) which is provided by the Word List tool.

The Word List tool provides a significant amount of information regarding the text corpus. In addition to Word Tokens, a detailed account of word frequency is provided as well as the number of types. In the field of vocabulary acquisition, AntConc's Word List tool is *par excellence*, one of the key elements in investigating students' language proficiency. This tool is also able to list lemmas³³. With a focus on the purpose of this paper, Figure 15 shows the different output provided by the Word List tool which is necessary to this paper:

³³ Uninflected word forms from which all inflected words are derived.

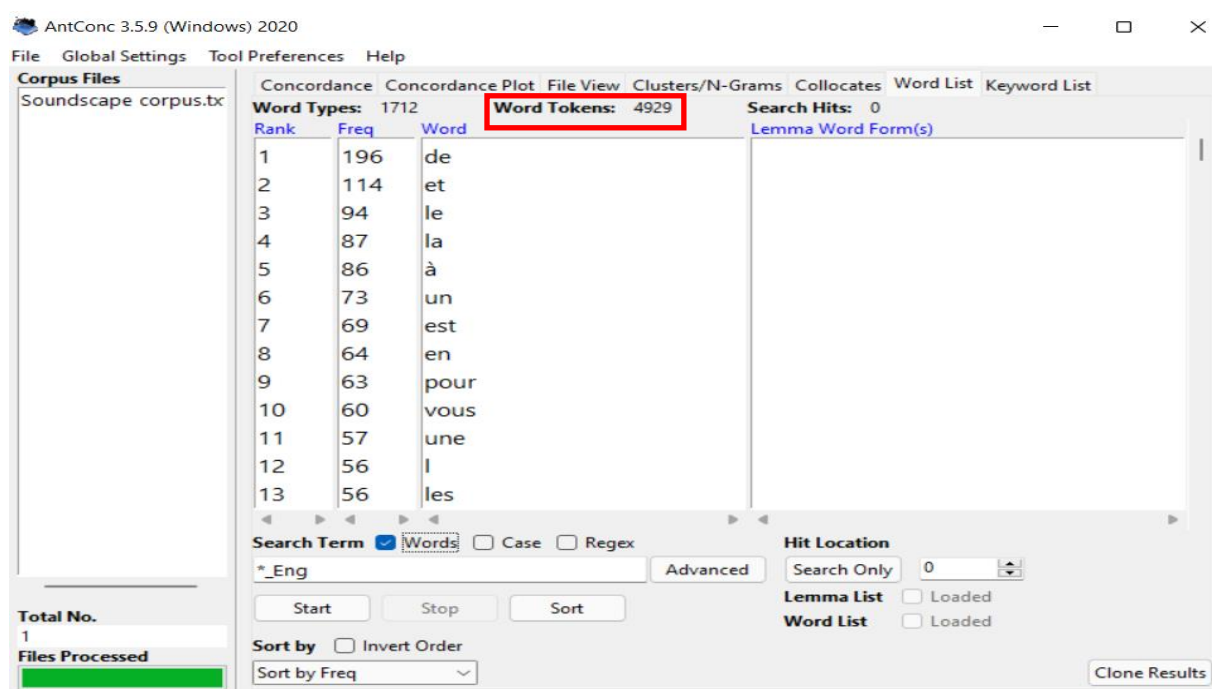


Figure 15: Word List Tool output

2.1.6 Research design: Mixed method research design

Deciding on a research design is one of the essential and primary elements that a researcher should decide on at the very beginning of his research process. It has been reported that a research design “aims, uses, purposes, intentions and plans within the practical constraint of location, time, money and the availability of staff” (Hakim, 2000, p.1 as quoted in Almalki, 2016, p.290). For many decades, research papers were subjected to binary research designs: quantitative and qualitative research designs. These two approaches to research resulted in interesting research papers and were able to uncover many phenomena. However, there was a gap in some studies that required the collection of two types of data and/or discuss the quantitative results with the qualitative data gathered from the literature.

The combination of the quantitative approach, as well as the qualitative approach, came to be known as the mixed research design which combines “elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches (e.g., use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis, inference techniques) for the broad purposes of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration” Johnson *et al.* (2007, p.123). Within the mixed methods research design, we can find different designs that use the quantitative and qualitative data in diverse ways and different order according to the purpose of the research project. In the case of this research paper, we are using an explanatory design that starts by collecting quantitative data and then uses qualitative data

to further clarify, understand and discuss the numerical findings. Below are the four designs that can be adopted within the mixed methods research design:

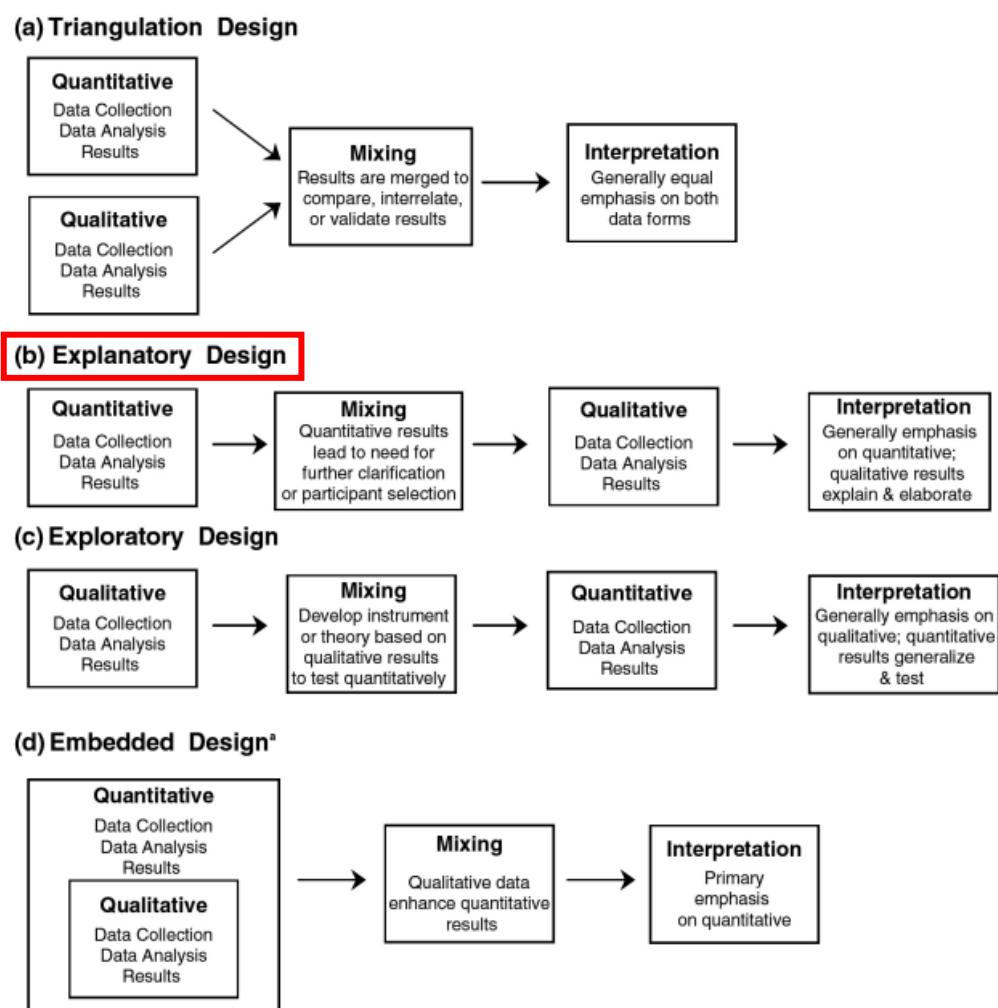


Figure 16: Four major mixed methods designs (Plano-Clark *et al.*, 2008)

This approach gives more freedom to researchers and allows them to use all the available resources to explain the studied phenomenon. For instance, in this research paper, we combine the quantitative results that consist of statistics and percentages that resulted from our corpora with the qualitative data that was discussed in the review of the literature section.

This combination of methods helps us decode our inferential statistics and discuss them within a social context that gives them more value and meaning. In our research paper, we believe that neither the quantitative nor the qualitative data can stand on their own; therefore, there is a great need to combine the two approaches for a better outcome. Figure 17 summarizes the research design adopted in the study conducted in this paper:

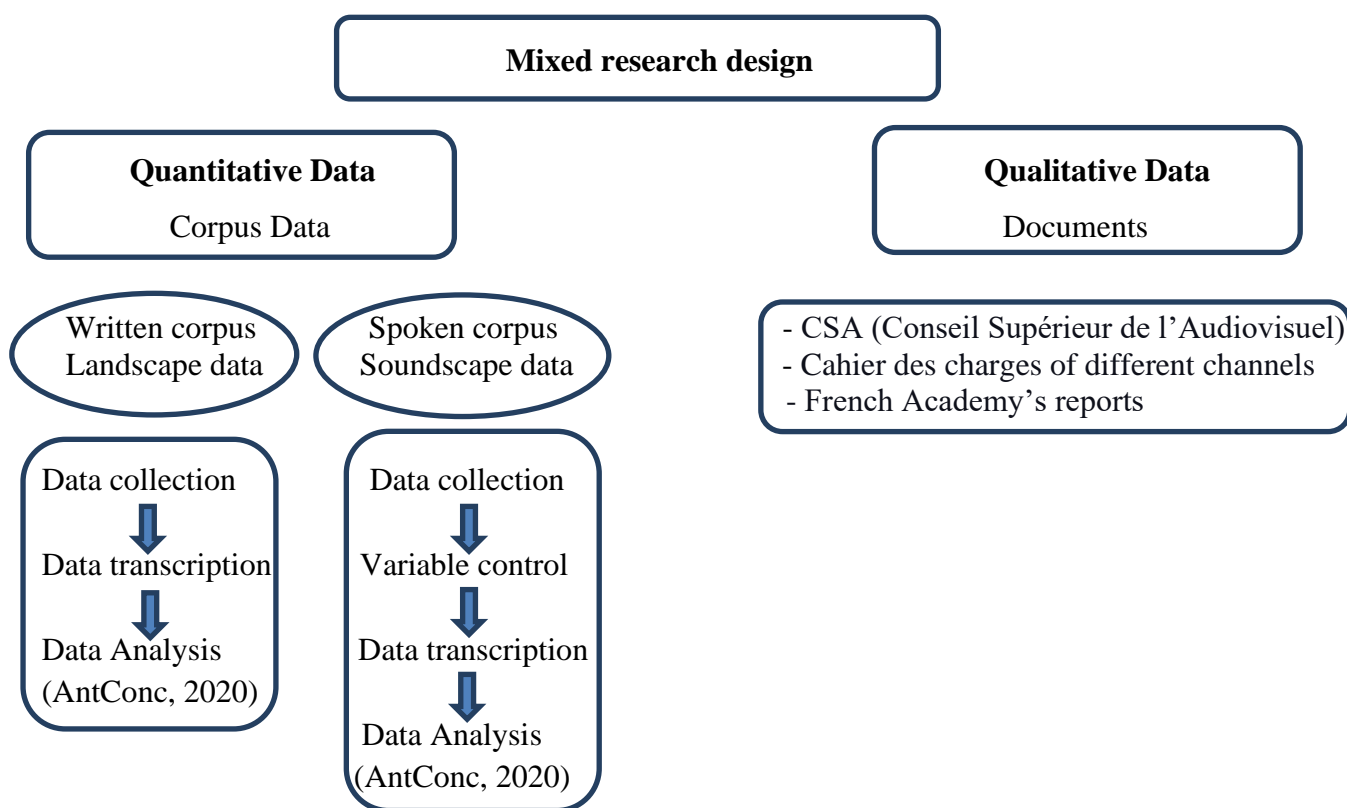


Figure 17: Mixed Methods Research Design

2.1.7 Addressing Ethics

While conducting this research, we tried to abide by the ethical guidelines that govern any academic research. This research paper contained two types of data collection: one that includes human subjects (experiment with a questionnaire) and one that does not (recordings of TV advertisements). We emphasize the need to make sure that we demonstrate that we have given proper, careful consideration to ethical questions; so, we will highlight the following five points: ensuring the minimal risk of the study; the institutional consent; the consent from the participants; keeping the confidentiality, anonymity, and privacy of the participants and finally debriefing the subjects by the end of the experiment.

Due to the nature of the study, the first point concerning insurance of the minimal risk of the study is guaranteed. The present study does not have any foreseeable risks or discomfort expected with its procedures. Participants answered the questionnaire in a calm, comfortable and peaceful environment. It was explained to the participants that their answers will be used in this research paper to investigate English language representation in the linguistic landscape and soundscape in France, that their answers will be kept confidential, and that no names will be included in the

actual research paper. By making sure that participants know how their answers are going to be used, we guarantee against the risk of any feelings of discomfort and confusion from their part.

Consent is one of the essential pillars when we talk about ethics in research. For the part of our study that was concerned with experimenting, the participants (all of whom are above the age of 18) were informed about the intentions of the study in which they were to participate to establish a trusting relationship with them and give them an idea about how their answers were going to be used. Therefore, consent was given by all subjects included in this experiment (Appendix A). Furthermore, participants were informed about their ability to withdraw from the research at any given point in time. Participants were also given an email address so that they could contact us if they do not want their answers to be part of the data used in this research as well as their right to take back their questionnaire document in case of withdrawal. Subjects agreed to be part of this relatively short procedure as it only took 30mins of their time and was mainly concerned with answering a questionnaire after watching three 30sec TV advertisements.

For the data collected from TV, consent is in the form of respecting copyright and authorship. We consider that observing TV advertisements, that are a product that is freely available and addressed to the public, without changing their content or editing the way they are presented validates the authenticity of the material used in our corpora. Citing the trademark of each advertisement used is also taken into account. Only using the linguistic content of TV advertisements prevents any copyright issues related to the music used in advertisements. The literature shows that TV is a valid and credible data source. For instance, the field of television studies uses TV as a data source in the study of different disciplines such as film studies, media studies, sociology, and so on. Because our corpus mentions links that can help the reader go back to the original advertisement on the YouTube channel PubTélé, consent was taken from the owner of the channel to reference the links as well as the name of this YouTube channel in this research project.

Undoubtedly, aspects like confidentiality, anonymity, and privacy of the participants are important in every study with human subjects. Yet, due to the nature of our study, there is no need to collect and maintain identifiable information about the research participants. There are adequate provisions to protect the privacy of subjects and to maintain the confidentiality of the identifiable data at each stage of the research. Furthermore, general results will be shown to the participants by the end of the study without specifying each participant's results.

2.2 Representation of the results

After establishing the essential elements that allow us to answer our research questions and test our hypotheses (instrument, research design, ethical issues), in this section, we introduce the findings that resulted from the processing of the corpora. This section will present the quantitative results (statistics) whereas the next section will introduce qualitative data (documents) that will provide a smooth transition from inferential statistics and decode its results. Because this paper seeks to establish a comparison between the linguistic soundscape and landscape, findings will be presented separately and then combined in the third part to be discussed.

Because the first two research questions required two different quantitative procedures, we believe that it is best to present them separately. Therefore, the first results will consist of the quantitative data that uncover how much English is presented in TV advertisements, followed by the results regarding the categorization of the patterns that English takes in TV advertisements (trademarks, slogans, product description). To simplify the output of the software (AntConc), findings will be presented in the form of pie charts that summarize the results in terms of percentages.

2.2.1 Quantitative analysis

In conducting research, there are many ways in which we can collect data. The nature of data collection that the researcher decides on is based on the topic of research and reflects the process through which input is processed. Cárdenas (2019, p.5) states that “in quantitative research, data to answer the research question are numbers. In qualitative research, the data collected are words or images that are not synthesized in numbers”. In the present section, we will report data in terms of numbers and percentages. The nature of these findings is based on two research questions (Q1, Q2) that are purely quantitative. At this point in our paper, we will report the findings of our studied variables (linguistic soundscape, linguistic landscape) separately. It is in the third part of this research paper that we will combine the results and put them side to side to establish a comparison between the two variables.

2.2.1.1 *English in the linguistic soundscape data: representation and features*

After recording the soundscape data, controlling variables (lyrics), transcribing the overall data, and presenting it in the form of a (.text) document to the software AntConc with the already discussed parameters (Global settings > Hide Tags, Search window Size: 1, KWIC Sort: Level 1,

Search Term: `_Eng`), results show that there are 440 occurrences of English tokens in the soundscape corpus. Findings are presented in the Software AntConc as follows:

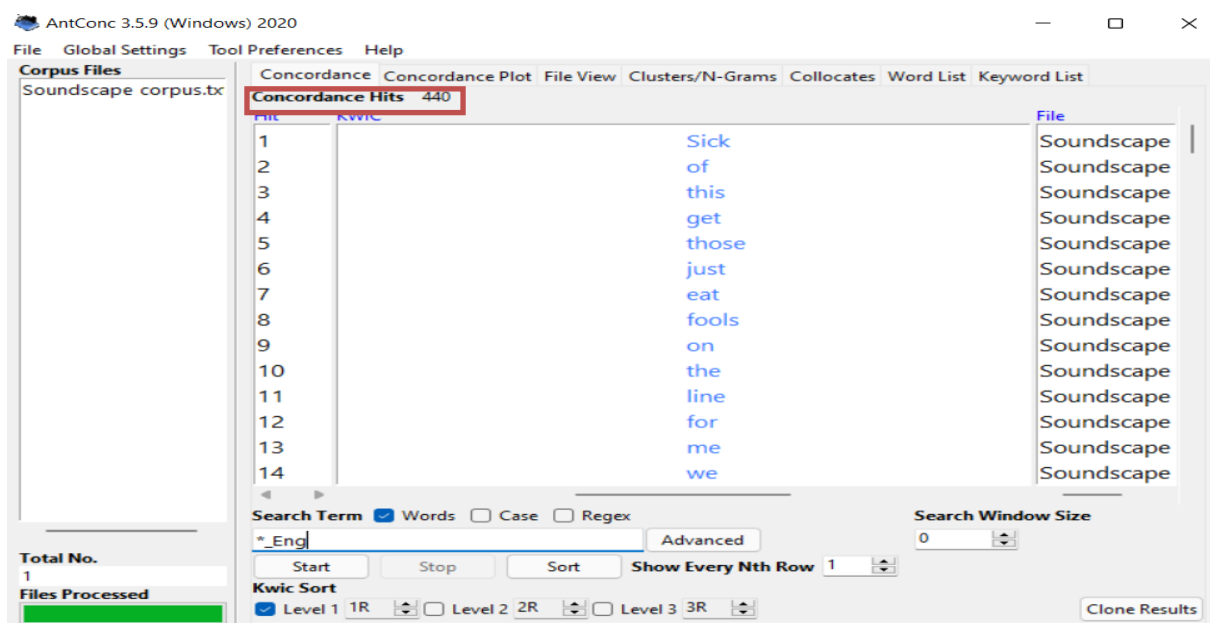


Figure 18: Concordance Hits for the linguistic soundscape corpus

For further information that would allow us to calculate our results, we go to the word list section which reveals the number of types that stands for the number of distinct words in the corpus, and the total number of tokens that stands for the number of individual occurrences of linguistic items. Figure 19 shows the results of the corpus analysis:

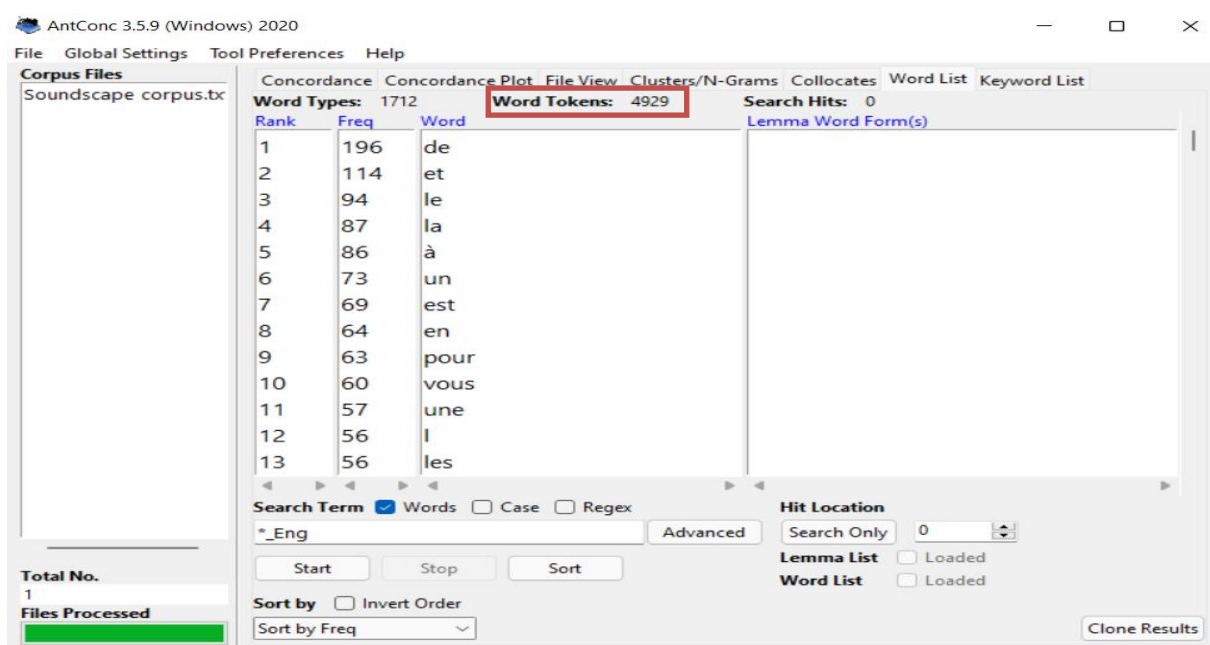


Figure 19: Number of tokens in the linguistic soundscape corpus

Results show that our corpus contains 1712 word types (English + French words) and 4929 word tokens (English + French words). Combining these results with the previously mentioned output that shows that we have 440 occurrences of English tokens allows us to deduce that English constitutes 8.9% of the linguistic soundscape of TV advertisements. The pie chart below demonstrates the previously discussed results:

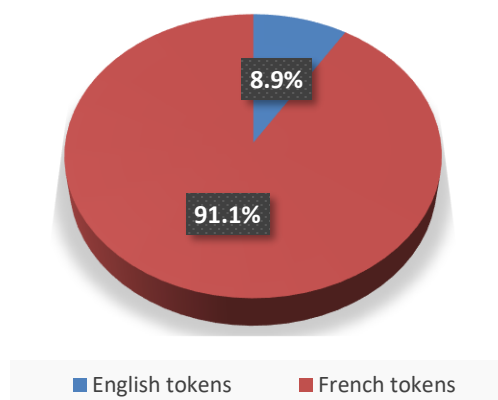


Figure 20: Percentage of English token in the linguistic soundscape corpus

The concordance plot provided by the software AntConc allows us to view the distribution of English tokens, that is the position where search results appear in the target text. The results are plotted in a *barcode* format where the dark lines are an indicator of an occurrence of an English token. Before looking at inferential statistics analysis, this descriptive finding provides solid ground for establishing a comparison between the linguistic soundscape and landscape. Figure 21 demonstrates the concordance plot for the linguistic soundscape corpus:

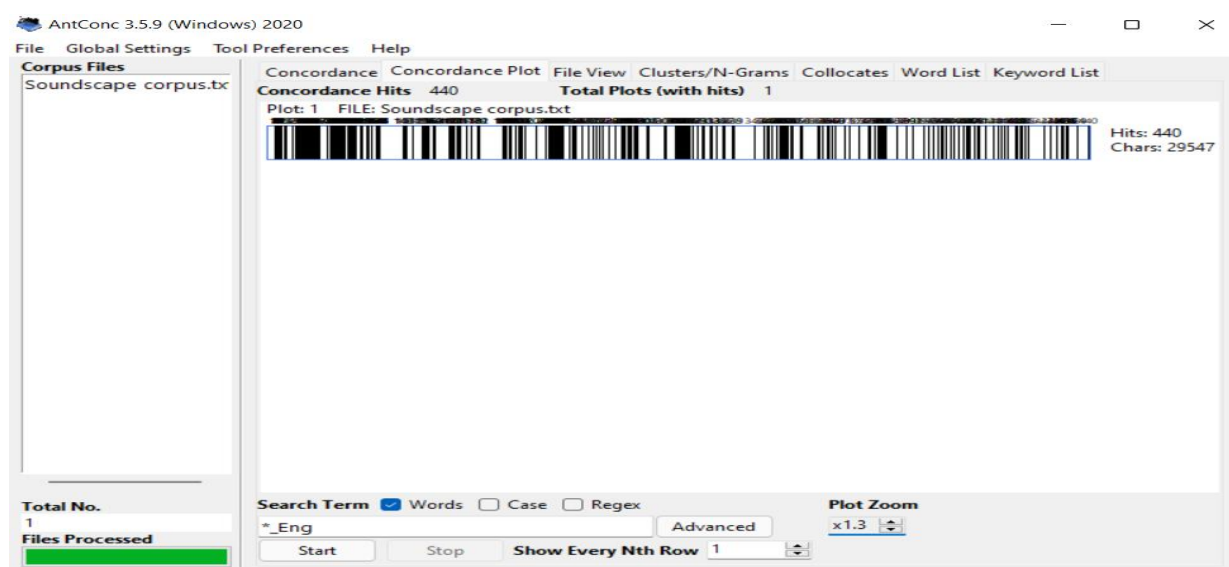


Figure 21: Concordance plot for the soundscape corpus

The second research question that our paper explores looks at the functions of the English language in French TV advertisements. We believe that defining the characteristics and the patterns that English takes in the soundscape and landscape will help us identify the reasons behind the statistical difference, if there are any. Observing the corpus of spoken English led us to deduce that English can be presented in TV advertisements in the form of slogans, trademarks, product description, or dual function (a combination of the previously mentioned functions). Defining the previously mentioned functions was done manually as there is no software tool that would recognize the functions and categorize them automatically.

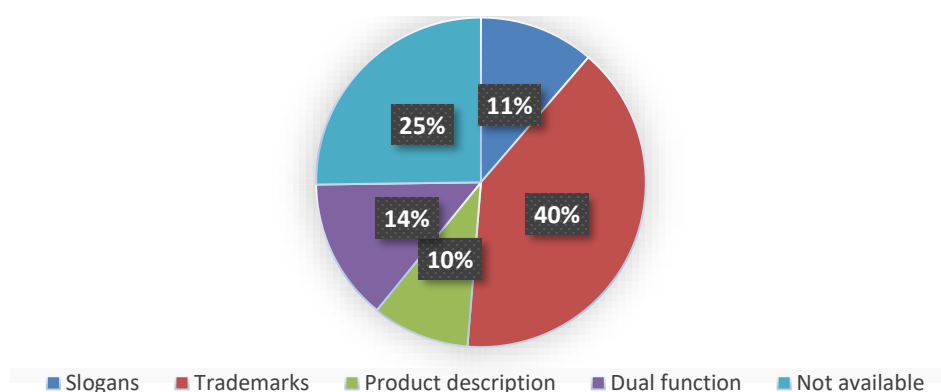


Figure 22: English language patterns in TV advertisements (linguistic soundscape)

The analysis of the soundscape corpus revealed that English is mostly used in trademarks (40%), that is single tokens or phrases that represent the name of a certain brand/ company. Second, we have the dual function that represents 14% of the functions. Slogans come third with 11% followed by product description (10%). It has been noticed that 25%, which is a very significant percentage, of TV advertisements either do not have any linguistic items (English + French) or have French linguistic items with no English tokens. Figure 23 explores these results:

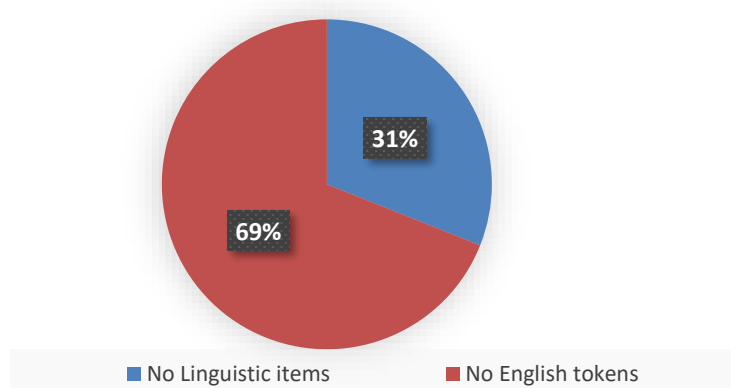


Figure 23: Percentage of advertisements with no English tokens/no linguistic tokens

After quantifying the function that we named in our corpus as *not available*³⁴, we concluded that the majority of the occurrences of this function (69%) are in advertisements where there are spoken linguistic items that only have French tokens and none that belong to the English language. The 31% that is left stands for TV advertisements that do not contain any linguistic items when it comes to the auditory part of the advertisement. Usually, these brands play music, with lyrical items or just melodies, and present all pieces of information through the landscape. There will be further discussion regarding these observations in the third part of this paper.

2.2.1.2 English in the linguistic landscape data: representation and features

The processing of the landscape data was a simpler process as we did not have to control for any confounding variables. The process of recording the landscape data, transcribing all the linguistic items that are presented on the screen, and presenting it in the form of a (.text) document to the software AntConc with the already discussed parameters (Global settings > Hide Tags, Search window Size: 1, KWIC Sort: Level 1, Search Term: _Eng), revealed that there are 757 occurrences of English tokens in the landscape corpus. Findings are presented in the Software AntConc as follows:

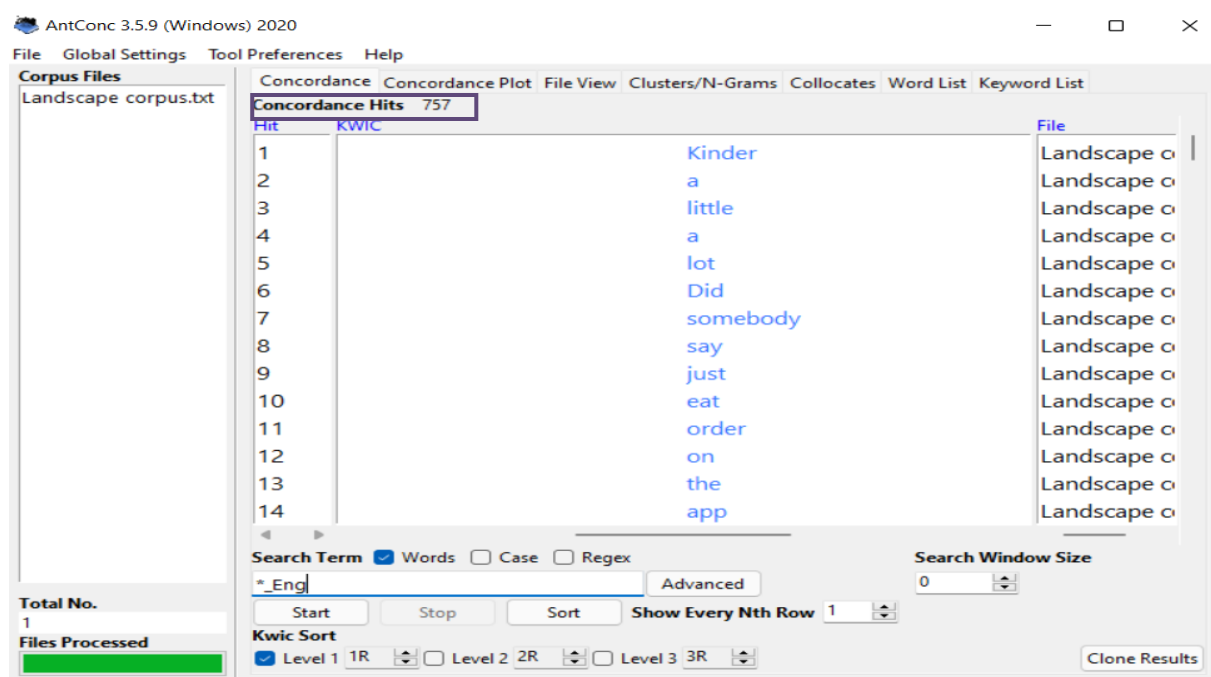


Figure 24: Concordance Hits for the linguistic landscape corpus

³⁴ Either no linguistic items or no English tokens.

For further information that would allow us to calculate our results, we go to the word list section that reveals the number of types and the total number of tokens in our corpus. Figure 25 shows the results of the corpus analysis:

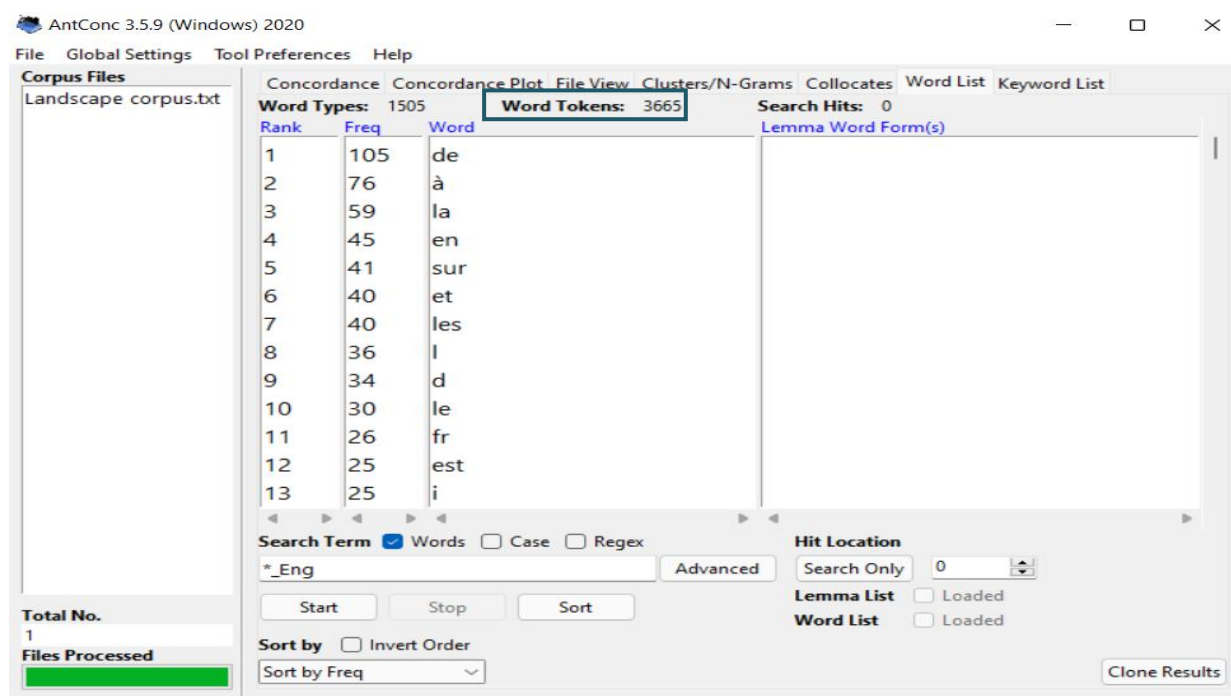


Figure 25: Number of tokens in the linguistic landscape corpus

Results show that our corpus contains 1505 word types (English + French words) and 3665 word tokens (English + French words). Combining these results with the previously mentioned output that shows that we have 757 occurrences of English tokens allows us to deduce that English constitutes 21% of the linguistic landscape of TV advertisements. The pie chart below demonstrates the previously discussed results:

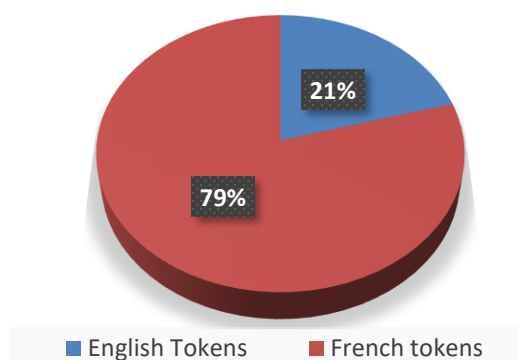


Figure 26: Percentage of English and French tokens in the linguistic landscape

The concordance plot provided by the software AntConc allows us to view the distribution of English tokens, that is the position where search results appear in the target text. The results are plotted in a *barcode* format where the dark lines are an indicator of the occurrence of an English token. Before diving into inferential statistics analysis, this descriptive finding provides solid ground for establishing a comparison between the linguistic soundscape and landscape. Figure 27 demonstrates the concordance plot for the linguistic landscape corpus:

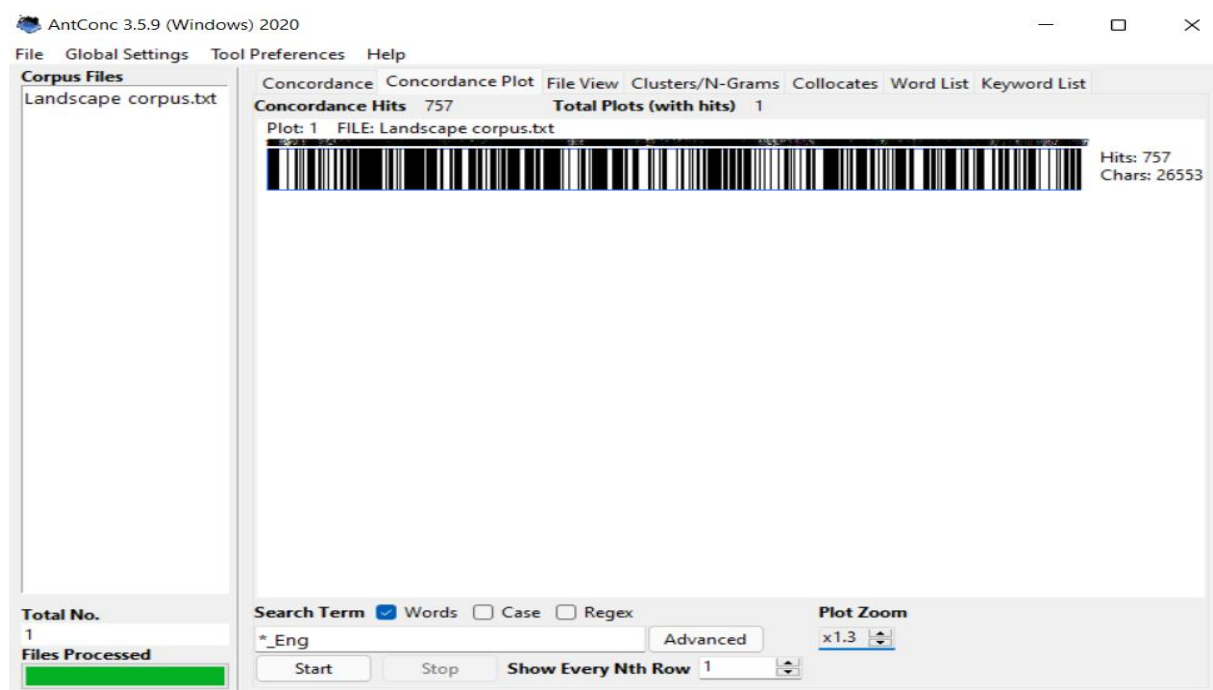


Figure 27: Concordance plot of the landscape corpus

Similar to the analysis conducted on the linguistic soundscape corpus, we explore the functions of written English used in French TV advertisements. Providing a parallel study between the linguistic soundscape and landscape allows us to establish a comparison that respects the methodology and ethics of quantitative research. Laying grounds that consist of statistical results allows the understanding of the similarities and differences between the spoken and written English in TV advertisements and what that may reveal regarding the sociolinguistic status of English in France. Observing the corpus of written English led us to deduce that English can be presented in TV advertisements in the form of slogans, trademarks, product description, dual function (a combination of the previously mentioned functions). Once again, defining and quantifying the previously mentioned functions was done manually as there is no software tool that would recognize the functions and categorize them automatically. Figure 28 shows the findings:

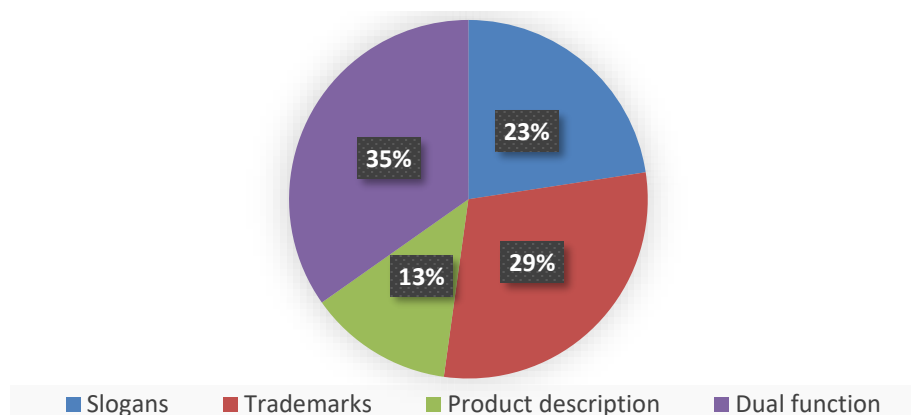


Figure 28: English language patterns in TV advertisements (linguistic landscape)

As can be seen above, unlike the linguistics soundscape corpus, the different functions that employ English in the linguistic landscape are close to each other in terms of percentages. The dual function takes the first place at 35%, followed by trademarks at 29% and slogans at 23%. The function of product description comes last at 13%. These functions will be further discussed and compared side to side with those of the linguistic soundscape in the upcoming section.

Combining the concordance plot of the linguistic soundscape and landscape (see Figure 29) shows that the linguistic landscape corpus contains more English tokens. This can be deduced through the observation of the multiple occurrences of the dark lines throughout the barcode. The linguistic soundscape corpus appears to have a lot of white spaces (stripes) which refer to the occurrences of non-English tokens. This descriptive analysis is interesting, yet it does not give us definitive results. The need for inferential statistics is essential at this stage of corpus analysis.

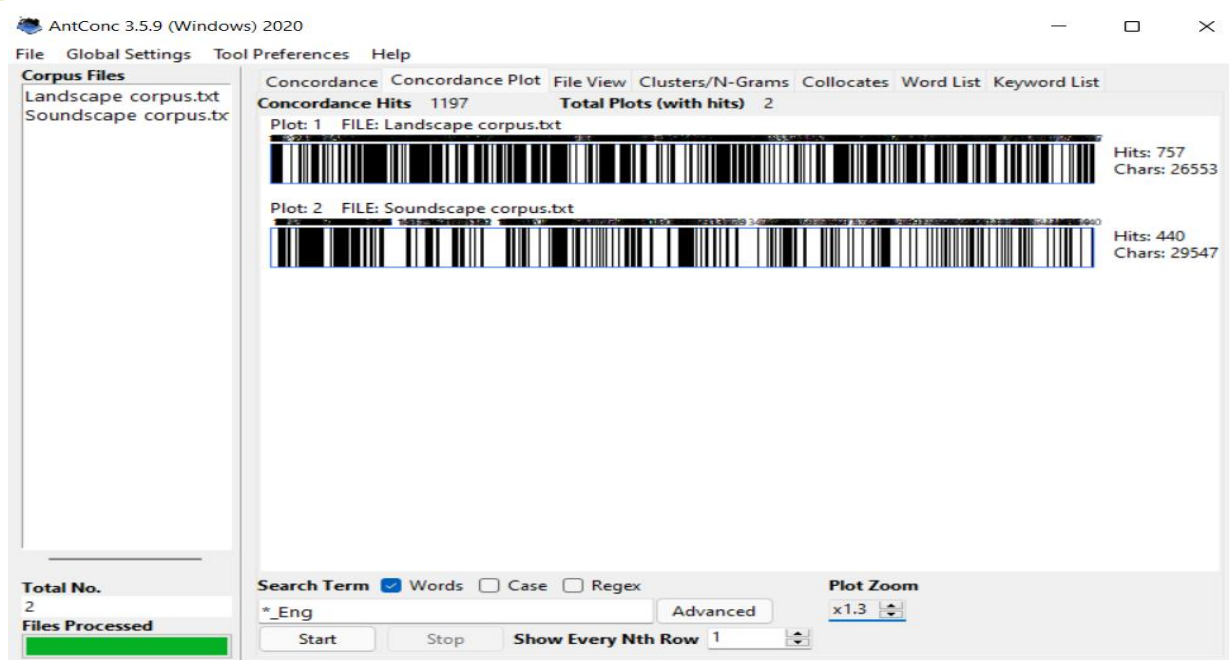


Figure 29: Concordance plot for soundscape and landscape corpus

As we expected, the size of the two types of corpora that we are working with is different. The linguistic soundscape contains 4929 tokens, whereas the linguistic landscape is composed of 3665 tokens. The fact that more linguistic items are presented in the soundscape can be discussed from a sociolinguistic, cognitive, and pragmatic perspective (part III), yet before launching this advanced analysis, we must first check if there is a statistical significance between the two corpora. That is, even though we deduced that in the linguistic soundscape we have 8.9% of English tokens and in the linguistic landscape we have 21%, our results will only make sense if there is a statistical significance between the two corpora. To establish that, we recall the *Log-likelihood and effect size calculator* available on the website <http://ucrel.lancs.ac.uk/llwizard.html>. This test was created by the computer scientist and Professor of natural language processing Paul Rayson in collaboration with Lancaster University.

The log-likelihood (LL) statistic is popular in corpus linguistics research because it allows researchers to find out if the observed difference between two sets of corpora is likely to be the result of chance alone, or actually statistically significant (Brezina, 2018). This statistical test is favored by many researchers due to its high relevance to studies that investigate token frequency in corpora. In his study, Iabdounane (2020, p.57) reports that “the choice of this test over other statistical significance tests was motivated by the following reasons: (1) we are working with frequency data; and, (2) it works best and is more reliable when dealing with small size corpora

(Dunning, 1993)”.

Before calculating the log-likelihood (LL) statistic using the online calculator, we believe that demonstrating how this value is calculated further supports the choice of this statistical test. To manually calculate the LL score, a 2x2 contingency table is constructed based on our studied corpora. Table 6 demonstrates the contingency table for LL test:

	Sample size (Linguistic soundscape)	Sample size (Linguistic landscape)	Total
Observed item frequency	O11	O12	R1= O11+ O12
Frequency of other items	O21	O22	R2= O21+ O22
Total	C1= O11+ O21	C2= O12+ O22	C1+C2

Table 6: Contingency table for LL test

Relying on Table 6, the expected frequencies are calculated using the formula:

$$E_i = \frac{C_i \sum_i O_i}{\sum_i O_i}$$

Where C_i stands for $C1$ and $C2$, and O_i stands for the observed frequencies. If we observe the components of the formula above, we can detect that it takes into account the sizes of the samples. Therefore, it allows the application of the formula without having to normalize the frequencies. After establishing the value of the expected frequencies, the LL value is calculated using to this formula below:

$$-2 \ln \lambda = 2 \sum O_i \ln \left(\frac{O_i}{E_i} \right)$$

All these complex numerical processes are automatically calculated by Paul Rayson’s online loglikelihood calculator. Providing details of our corpora: the frequencies of the items of interest

(frequency of English tokens in the corpus) and the sample sizes allow us to get the LL score which we compare to Rayson's critical values. Table 7 demonstrates the Log-likelihood and effect size calculator with corpora information from this research paper:

	Soundscape corpus	Landscape corpus
Frequency of words	440	757
Corpus size	4929	3665

Table 7: Log-likelihood and effect size calculator

Results are shown in the form of a table with different values: O1 is for the observed frequency in corpus 1 (linguistic soundscape), O2 is for the observed frequency in corpus 2 (linguistic landscape), %1 and %2 values show relative frequencies in the texts, + indicates overuse in O1 relative to O2, - indicates underuse in O1 relative to O2. For the purpose of this research paper, we are going to only be concerned with the value of the Log-likelihood (LL). Results are reported in the table below:

Item	O1	%1	O2	%2	LL	%DIFF	Bayes	ELL	RRisk	LogRatio	OddsRatio
Word	440	8.93	757	20.65	- 205.07	-56.78	196.01	0.00383	0.43	-1.21	0.38

Table 8: Log-likelihood calculator results for corpus 1 and 2

After obtaining the value of the Log-likelihood, which in this case is LL=205.07, we compare it to the critical value provided on the website. If the LL value is superior to the critical value that is most close to it, we have the percentile that matches the level of statistical significance between corpus 1 and corpus 2. The values available are the following:

- 95th percentile; 5% level; $p < 0.05$; critical value = 3.84
- 99th percentile; 1% level; $p < 0.01$; critical value = 6.63
- 99.9th percentile; 0.1% level; $p < 0.001$; critical value = 10.83
- 99.99th percentile; 0.01% level; $p < 0.0001$; critical value = 15.13

As shown above, our Log-likelihood value (LL= 205.07) is much superior to the critical value of 15.13. The quantitative results allow us to say that for 0.01% level; $p < 0.0001$, we are 99.99% sure that there is a statistical difference between linguistic soundscape and landscape corpus, and that this difference is due to the studied variables, that is the variety through which the English language is presented (spoken, written). This statistical evidence leads us to further discuss and explore the functions and the patterns that the English language takes in the linguistic soundscape

and landscape. We believe that each function gives an idea about the amount of English represented in TV advertisements. For instance, trademarks only use one to two tokens whereas slogans, product descriptions, and dual functions carry more linguistic items. Therefore, analyzing the amount, the reason, and the manner through which these functions are divided between the soundscape and landscape using the psycholinguistic and neurolinguistic evidence discussed in part one, as well as the official documents that are exclusive to the context of France, will help us understand our findings and conclude the sociolinguistic status of English in France.

In this chapter, we were able to report the quantitative results that yielded from our statistical analysis. The software AntConc revealed that English represents 8.9% of tokens in the linguistic soundscape, whereas it represents 21% in the linguistic landscape. Testing the statistical significance through the log-likelihood tool shows that, indeed, there is a statistical significance between the linguistic soundscape and landscape. The second finding of our paper concerns the patterns and the characteristics that the English language takes in TV advertisements. Our corpora demonstrate that, in the soundscape, English appears the most in trademarks. In addition, data shows that, for the most part, English is absent in the linguistic soundscape. For the linguistic landscape, we notice that English is used for more than one function at a time (dual function). All these quantitative results bring about an essential question that we seek to answer: What are the reasons behind this lack of compatibility between the linguistic soundscape and landscape?

A thorough discussion that answers all the questions that we set out in this paper will take place in the upcoming chapter. In addition to our quantitative analysis, we will resort to a qualitative analysis that shows another perspective that will help us decode and understand our statistical findings. We will introduce official documents that discuss language representation in the linguistic soundscape and landscape of France. All this evidence will enable us to reflect on our results and make sense of our statistics. In reviewing the literature on the matter, we found three main documents that operate as a guideline when it comes to linguistic representation through different media in France. Looking through these documents will enable us to reveal the top-down perceptions and attitudes towards national and foreign language presentation. To lay solid grounds for our discussion, we will elaborate on the main laws that regulate language representation in France (e.g., Toubon law). Furthermore, we will recall the two documents that were previously discussed in last year's paper (Taouss, 2021): CSA³⁵ (*Conseil Supérieur de l'Audiovisuel*) reports,

³⁵ Translation: Superior Council of Audiovisual.

*Cahier des charges*³⁶ of different channels which will give us an idea about how different TV channels perceive the English language. Finally, we will look at the most recent document published by the French Academy³⁷ in 2022 which gives much insight into attitudes and plans of action that are taken to answer the growing amount of English language representation in the linguistic soundscape and landscape in France.

³⁶ Translation: Bill of specifications.

³⁷ The principal French council for matters pertaining to the French language.

PART 3: DISCUSSION OF THE OVERALL REPRESENTATION OF ENGLISH IN THE LINGUISTIC SOUNDSCAPE AND LANDSCAPE OF FRENCH TV ADVERTISEMENTS

The present chapter presents an in-depth analysis of the findings reported in part II. In addition to quantitative results, qualitative data is going to be used to explain our descriptive and inferential statistics. In this part, we decided that it would be best to first introduce and discuss each studied variable separately (linguistic soundscape, linguistic landscape), and then combine them to establish a comparison between them. We believe that the evaluation of the quantity, the patterns, and the established official documents will create the perfect recipe that will allow us to conclude the sociolinguistic status of the English language in France. This chapter is divided into three main subsections. The first subsection discusses the functional-pragmatic perspective on language and society which is a linguistic approach that links the study of language to the social context where it exists. The fact that language dynamics change depending on the change of the geographic space, the people that inhabit it, and the culture that has been built and agreed on for decades makes language a flexible, yet complex construct that needs to be defined through the social context that matches the society studied. Therefore, introducing and discussing our results through a functional-pragmatic perspective will contribute to the relevance of our research paper, especially since we intend to view language through a functional and pragmatic lens and not only a mere representation of linguistic items. Because our previous paper (Taouss, 2021) has already looked into the functional-pragmatic perspective on language and society, we will recall this in this subsection as it is relevant to our present research paper.

The second subsection of this chapter looks closely at the two studied variables. We start by discussing the linguistic soundscape and the reasons behind the numerical findings that were displayed in part II. Similarly, the representation of English and French in the linguistic landscape was explored from an analytical perspective. The analysis and discussion of descriptive and inferential statistics were backed up by findings from the patterns (trademarks, slogans, product description, dual function) that we investigated through our second research question. The combination of different quantitative findings, as well as the qualitative results reported in official documents, allow us to further understand the linguistic choices made by the top-down processing which will later enable us to draw conclusions on the sociolinguistic status of English in France.

Collecting enough rich data about the linguistic soundscape and landscape leads us to extensively explore and jointly discuss our variables in the third subsection of our research paper.

In this part, we establish a comparative analysis between the representation of English tokens in oral (soundscape) and written form (landscape). Understanding the difference between the different means through which language is represented, and the effect that it has based on its format (spoken, written) will contribute to our overall discussion. Our paper explores all the variables that may have led to our quantitative results; therefore, discussing the sociolinguistic, neurolinguistic, and psycholinguistic effects of linguistic representation through different means and amounts will provide much input that will contribute to answering our last research question.

3.1 A functional-pragmatic perspective on language and society

Language is a multifaceted and compound construct. Its study has been the subject of many research fields. Functional-pragmatics is a linguistic theory that looks at language from a perspective that takes into account its social context. Redder (2008, p.133) claims that this theory “conceives of language as a complex of form-function nexus anchored in reality as societal practice”. Furthermore, Hoffmann (2007) reports that:

Functional Pragmatics views language as something specific to and constitutive of the human species, i.e. as something that arose from a qualitative leap of communicative devices during the formation of human societies, thus allowing for a knowledge-based appropriation of reality (qtd. in Redder, 2008, p.133).

Because functional-pragmatics studies language as a system that is customizable to societal needs, its methodology is concerned with two types of analysis that encompass language and social practices. Redder (2008) states that the linguistic theory of functional-pragmatics adopts an empiricism³⁸ through a hermeneutic analysis³⁹. It is through these processes of analysis and reflection that researchers are able to draw meaningful conclusions, rather than unintelligible and superficial ones, regarding language use.

This process of analysis goes hand in hand with the type of approach adopted in this research paper. We cannot study advertisements without looking at the broad social context of the French

³⁸ Empiricism, in philosophy, signifies the view that all concepts originate in experience, that all concepts are about or applicable to things that can be experienced, or that all rationally acceptable beliefs or propositions are justifiable or knowable only through experience (Definition from *Encyclopedia Britannica*).

³⁹ “The Hermeneutic Content Analysis is an innovative analysis method. It brings together Hermeneutic and Qualitative Content Analysis joining the principles of content analysis such as coding, categorization, systematization and interpretation with understanding and reflection. That analysis method is important for taking into account interpretation and understanding as important elements in analysis and reflection of content and textual elements. That method makes it possible to find textual indicators that go unnoticed in a mere descriptive analysis” (Vieira & de Queiroz, 2017, p.8).

Republic. It is this particularity of the social context, needs, and practices that characterizes each research paper that studies the linguistic soundscape and landscape of a given territory or region. For instance, if we only study the linguistic content of advertisements without taking into account the environment in which it exists, we will have monotonous studies that do not look at the key element which is the human subject and that allows us to further understand the studied social phenomenon.

Undoubtedly, in relating form to function, we are also able to unlock different levels of complexity of language. The language of TV advertisements is composed of many layers that serve different purposes that range from a purely economic extreme that seeks to sell a certain product to an extreme that promotes national identity through language. In this study, we seek to adopt the same approach as that of Scarvaglieri *et al.* (2013) in analyzing the linguistic soundscape and landscape. In their study, they explain that “adopting a functional-pragmatic perspective in the analysis of languages of public signs is, in our opinion, a suitable way of compensating for some of the shortcomings of traditional linguistic landscaping research” (p.46). That is, even though our paper seeks to discuss how the English language is portrayed in TV advertisements, and how decisions made by different authorities affect its representation, we cannot just neglect what exists at the other end of each TV screen: the consumer. Therefore, in this part, we will extensively discuss the focal point which is the top-down processing of linguistic soundscaping and landscaping, but with the consideration of the human subjects (consumers) who are the target of this well-studied representation of linguistic items.

Indeed, language is a tool for communication and ideological exchange. Its existence in different institutions that organize our daily life is necessary. It is by language that the state seeks social order by regulating behaviors and imposing penalties in the case of lawbreaking. Functional-pragmatics takes great interest in different institutions due to the power that language holds within these entities, a power that exceeds the spoken and written word and that has a purpose and a strong ideological effect. Redder (2008, p.145) explains that:

From its very beginnings, functional pragmatics has dedicated itself to revealing the nexus of language and institutions in order to make actants conscious of the institutional conditions of their actions and to make these actions accessible to practical criticism.

In his paper, Redder (2008) shows that the field of functional-pragmatics takes great interest in

institutions where language plays a crucial role. These institutions are diverse and belong to different sectors of society, for example, schools, universities, research, medicine, law, business, administration, and politics. Because our paper seeks to understand language from a perspective that goes beyond the literal presentation of linguistic items, we will be using the findings from functional-pragmatics in sectors that are related to law, business, administration, and politics.

It is important to acknowledge that the complexity of language requires a pragmatic analysis. Quantitative data can only report facts regarding the state of foreign languages in France, but our task as researchers is to make meaning of these numbers and percentiles to understand different social phenomena. The adoption of a linguistic theory that can lead the analysis and the discussion of our results show where we stand as researchers and what we see as relevant for our research paper.

3.2 Representation of linguistic items in TV advertisements

The present study is concerned with two variables: the linguistic soundscape and the linguistic landscape; therefore, discussing each variable separately is essential to the understanding of how language functions depending on the way it is presented (spoken, written). In this subsection, we are going to provide a parallel analysis of the linguistic soundscape and landscape using the quantitative results from our first research question. In addition, the patterns revealed in our second quantitative results (research question 2) will be used to discuss each variable and the extent to which the linguistic soundscape and landscape employ English in TV advertisements.

3.2.1 Linguistic soundscape

The first result that the software AntConc revealed about the linguistic soundscape is the amount of spoken English portrayed in French TV advertisements. These findings are a key element in understanding language dynamics, and give us a sample that can be compared with the different documents that report on linguistic soundscape regulations and the amount of English allowed in spoken form in TV advertisements. Before diving into the discussion of our results and the possible reasons behind them, Table 9 recalls the quantitative results reported by the software AntConc:

	English	French
Spoken languages	8.9%	91.1%

Table 9: Percentage of languages spoken in TV advertisements

Table 9 shows that, in the linguistic soundscape, English represents 8.9%, whereas French constitutes 91.1% of the spoken linguistic items. These results imply that French is the dominant language, whereas the presence of the English language is very insignificant. We can explain this large difference between languages by the fact that French holds an informative function which is essential in the field of advertising. That is, making sure that the viewers understand the different information related to the product which will contribute to generating sales is the ultimate goal of advertisement. It can also be that a great portion of French TV viewers will not understand spoken English which will affect the informative function. To further understand and discuss these results we recall our second findings that are concerned with the patterns of the English language in TV advertisements.

Pattern	Percentage
Trademarks	40%
Slogans	11%
Product description	10%
Dual function	14%

Table 10: Percentage of different patterns in English in the linguistic soundscape

In the table above, if we add the percentages of all the patterns that are present in the linguistic soundscape of the studied corpora, we find that it only constitutes 75%. That is, 25% of advertisements either have no linguistic items or no English tokens. To further explore this observation, we looked closely at the 25% portion. It showed that 31% of that amount does not contain any linguistic items (English or French) while 69% of it does not contain any English. This observation reveals many things about the linguistic soundscape in TV. First, our results lead us to say that spoken language mostly leans towards the representation of key information that is essential to the understanding of the product or service: the trademark and its function. The fact that the linguistic soundscape targets or privileges the informational function explains why the amount of English presented in it is not as significant as French which is the primary and native language of the majority of TV viewers.

Revisiting Table 10 shows that the highest percentage goes to trademarks which represent the brand name. To understand why the percentage of trademarks is significant (40%), we recall the claim by D. King (2008, p.216, as cited by K. Bhatia, 2008, p.558) which states that:

According to the Toubon Law, the use of English is legal in the following domains: music sound tracks in television and radio commercials, corporate and **brand names**, and [f]oreign product names and specialties familiar to the general public (for example, chorizo, cookie, couscous, gin, gorgonzola, hot dog, jeans, paella, pizza, sandwich, scotch whisky)”.

It appears that the reason behind the existence of 40% of trademarks is not by choice, but rather by necessity and the fact that it is prohibited by law to present a product without its trademark attached to it, as well as translating it. The absence of any modifications on the level of trademarks resulted in a significant percentage of English tokens in the linguistic soundscape.

All the patterns that follow trademarks have very little significance in our corpus. For instance, the dual function occupies 14% of our data. This function mostly represents the combination of two out of the three functions that use English. For instance, the majority of the dual functions combine trademarks as well as a word or phrase in English that describes a product. Usually, along with the trademarks, words such as *fun*, *cool*, *drive*, *collect*, *click*, etc. are present in the linguistic soundscape due to their popularity in everyday speech as well as their pragmatic effect that implies youthfulness, modernity, and globalization.

Slogans represent 11% which is also a very insignificant percentage. Like trademarks, slogans are considered to present the identity of a certain product which implies that its presence is essential. However, this presentation is only necessary for the linguistic landscape. That is, by law, the slogan of a certain brand must be presented in written form in TV advertisement, but saying it is an option and not a necessity. Interestingly, it has been reported by the CSA that:

Il n'est pas interdit d'utiliser des mots étrangers s'ils sont accompagnés d'une traduction française « *aussi lisible, audible ou intelligible que la présentation en langue étrangère* ». Cette disposition s'applique plus particulièrement au domaine de la publicité afin de garantir la compréhension des messages pour une meilleure protection du consommateur (cf : **Article 20-1 de la loi n° 86-1067 du 30 septembre**

1986 relative à la liberté de communication, complété par la loi n° 94-665 du 4 août 1994 relative à l'emploi de la langue française).⁴⁰

This claim leads us to wonder why slogans are not linguistic items that are also translated and reported orally. We can explain this by the fact that the linguistic soundscape is so important to convey essential information rather than reporting slogans which, for the most part, are an additional element that may not contain useful information for the viewer. It is essential to acknowledge that this observation is not a generalization to all advertisements on TV. Indeed, some slogans have an informative function, yet in our corpus, the majority of slogans have a symbolic function. Below are examples of TV advertisements from our corpora in which slogans are believed to hold a symbolic function, hence their absence in the linguistic soundscape of TV advertisements:



Image 6: Slogan of the brand Lacoste



Image 7: Slogan of the brand Kinder

⁴⁰ It is not forbidden to use foreign words if they are accompanied by a French translation “as legible, audible or intelligible as the presentation in the foreign language”. This provision applies more particularly to the field of advertising in order to guarantee the understanding of the messages for a better protection of the consumer (cf: Article 20-1 of the law n° 86-1067 of September 30, 1986, relating to the freedom of communication, supplemented by law n° 94-665 of 4 August 1994 relating to the use of the French language) (personal translation).



Image 8: Slogan of the brand Honda

The function that holds the least percentage in our spoken corpus is that of product description. Usually, describing a product necessitates the use of adjectives that describe the advertised product and present its functions/benefits. Evidently, in the soundscape corpus, we notice the use of adjectives that are popular in everyday speech or have already been introduced in the French dictionary. For instance, tokens such as *fun* and *cool* are frequent in our corpus. However, we can also find tokens that may be challenging to understand, yet they are necessary to mention as they are an essential part of the identity of the product. For example, the brand KFC uses the phrase *crispy tenders* which is descriptive but also is considered the name of the product on the menu. In this case, we can say that using adjectives that are not frequent in the French lexicon is due to the fact that the adjective is a part of the product's identity and branding strategy. Table 11 demonstrates the previously discussed examples from our corpora highlighting the English words used to describe a certain product:

Brand	Transcription of spoken data
KFC	Découvrez le hot dog new yorkais revisité au mode KFC un pain moelleux du cheddar fondant du vrai poulet frit maison de la sauce et des onions croustillants les crispy tenders hot dog en ce moment chez kfc
Oasis	Ça manque de fun dans cette famille bah on fait quoi là ok largage de fun maman il y a des fruits dans le frigo une mangue avec des dents oui nous hier on a vu une poire en kayak ah tu es lourd va y oasis source naturel de fun
LG	Il est où le biberon cool plus besoin d'ouvrir toquez voyez à l'intérieur et retenez la fraîcheur LG InstaView DoorinDoor

Table 11: Product description in the linguistic soundscape

Our findings go hand in hand with the analysis that we provided above. The fact that the linguistic soundscape carries an informational function rather than a symbolic one suggests that, when describing a product, advertisers, for the most part, use vocabulary items that are familiar, simple, and understandable. Exposing the French audience to unpopular and unfamiliar tokens to describe a product can occur in the case where the adjective is highly linked to the product (e.g., *crispy* (KFC), *DoorinDoor/ InstaView* (LG)).

3.2.2 Linguistic landscape

The first result that the software revealed about the linguistic landscape is the amount of English present in French TV advertisements. These findings are a key element in understanding language dynamics, and give us a sample that can be compared with the different documents that report on the linguistic landscape regulations and the amount of English allowed in written form in TV advertisements. Before diving into the discussion of our results and the possible reasons behind them, Table 12 recalls the quantitative results reported by the software AntConc:

	English	French
Written languages	21%	79%

Table 12: Percentage of written languages in TV advertisements

Table 12 shows that, in the linguistic landscape of TV advertisements, English represents 21%, whereas French constitutes 79% of the written linguistic items. These results imply that French is the dominant language. However, unlike the linguistic soundscape, English in the linguistic landscape represent a large amount. Undoubtedly, the dominance of the French language is due to the fact that French holds an informative function that will contribute to generating sales, which is the ultimate goal of advertisement. In addition, the French language represents a sense of national identity which is important for TV viewers (Papoutsaki, 2001). The presence of English in a significant amount is indeed interesting and deserves an in-depth discussion. To further understand and discuss these results, we recall our second findings that are concerned with the patterns of the English language in TV advertisements.

Pattern	Percentage
Trademarks	29%
Slogans	23%

Product description	13%
Dual function	35%

Table 13: Percentage of different patterns in English in the linguistic landscape

The pattern that holds the highest percentage in the linguistic landscape is the dual function pattern (35%). This pattern represents a combination of two out of the three functions that we discuss in this paper (trademarks, slogans, product description). Statistically, the fact that the dual function holds the highest percentage makes a lot of sense because the presence of two or more functions in one TV advertisement means that English tokens were used for more than one purpose, hence a higher percentage of English tokens. Below are a few examples from our corpus that represent the dual function:

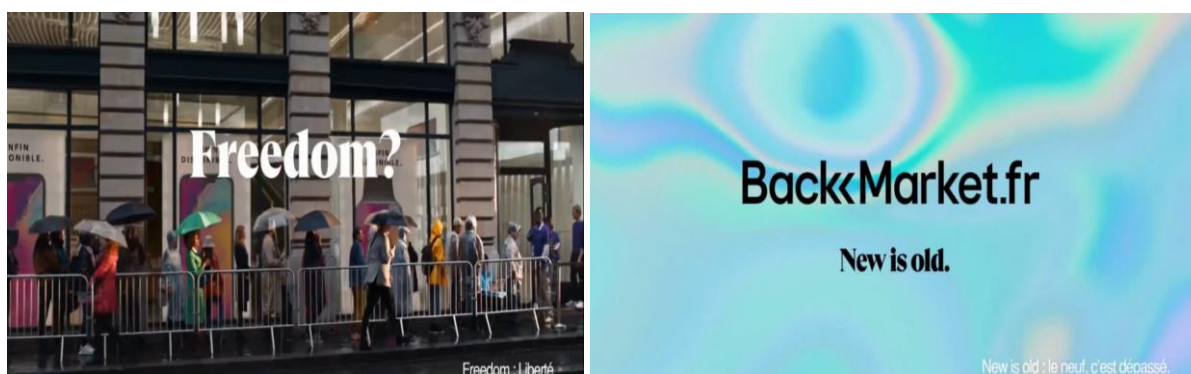


Image 9: Dual function (Product description + slogan) in the TV advertisement for the brand Backmarket

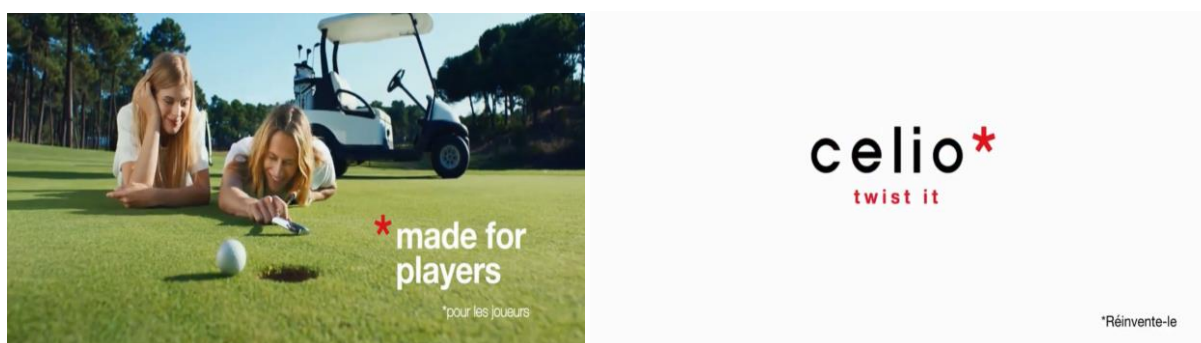


Image 10: Dual function (Product description + slogan) in the TV advertisement for the brand Celio

The second pattern that holds a significant percentage is trademarks. This is because, legally, the trademark of a certain brand must be present in its original language and without translation. The

trademark constitutes the identity of the product; therefore, altering its form would possibly affect its image and confusion for the consumer. As a result, the top-down processing must abide by this law. We can also notice that the font, size, and color in which a certain trademark is presented is similar across different channels and countries. This allows the brand to build an international image across all its markets regardless of their consumers' mother tongue or cultural background. Having a trademark that is consistent throughout the years allows the audience to build a mental image that directly links the word and the form in which it is written to a specific brand. This cognitive process does not necessitate the understanding of the meaning of the token(s) used as the trademark. For instance, we can recall trademarks that we know by heart and can mentally picture their logos, but not their meaning (e.g., VW: Volkswagen = the people's car). Below are examples of trademarks from our corpus that show popular trademarks in English that may be stored in the viewers' mental lexicon without having to understand the meaning of the tokens that compose them:

Brand	Trademark/ logo
Finishing Touch Flawless	 The logo for 'Finishing Touch Flawless Brows' features the words 'FINISHING TOUCH' in small black capital letters above 'FLAWLESS' in large red capital letters, followed by 'Brows' in a black script font.
Kinder	 The 'Kinder' logo consists of the word 'Kinder' in a bold, sans-serif font, with 'Kinder' in black and 'der' in red, followed by a small registered trademark symbol.
Free	 The 'free' logo features the word 'free' in a red, cursive script font.
Burger King	 The 'Burger King' logo is a circular emblem with a yellow background, a red border, and the words 'BURGER KING' in red capital letters.
Bymycar	 The 'BYmyCAR.fr' logo features the text 'BYmyCAR' in a grey, sans-serif font, with 'BY' in all caps and 'my' in lowercase, followed by '.fr'.
Backmarket	 The 'BackMarket' logo features the word 'Back' in a bold, black, sans-serif font, followed by 'Market' in a bold, black, sans-serif font.
Playmobil	 The 'Playmobil' logo features the word 'playmobil' in a blue, sans-serif font, with a small blue and white Playmobil figure icon above the 'i'.
Finish	 The 'Finish' logo features the word 'finish' in a blue, sans-serif font, with a red underline.
Fittrack	 The 'FitTrack' logo features a green arrow icon pointing right, followed by the word 'FitTrack' in a bold, black, sans-serif font.
Quickbooks	 The 'Quickbooks' logo features a green circular icon with the letters 'qb' in white, followed by the word 'quickbooks' in a bold, black, sans-serif font.








Always	
Ultimate Speed	
Head & Shoulders	
Hellobank	
Parkside	
Magic	
Air Wick	

Table 14: Trademarks from the linguistic landscape corpus

The representation of English through trademarks should not be taken for granted. Consistent and continuous exposure to linguistic items may lead to their acquisition. The fact that translation of trademarks is prohibited gives more possibilities to the English language to be present in the linguistic landscape of French TV advertisements. Observing our corpus, we can notice that trademarks in English are not exclusive to brands from English-speaking countries, but are also adopted by French brands. For instance, the brands *bymycar* and *free mobile* are of French origin and chose an English trademark to promote their services. This is due to the fact that English has become a widely spread language in Europe as has been established through various studies. For example, Rogerson-Revell states that “English is the widest spread *lingua franca* within Europe, with more than 90 percent of European international organizations using English in their communication” (qtd. in Podhovnik, 2012, p.5). Therefore, we can say that, indeed, there are legitimate reasons that have motivated many multinational companies to choose English to promote their products and services. We can say that, in this case, the choice of the English language is pragmatic (economic gain) rather than ideological (e.g., affecting national identity) (Podhovnik, 2012). It has been reported by Nickerson (2005, p.377) (qtd. in Podhovnik, 2012, p.5) that:

English is used as a communication tool like mathematics and numbers. English has a useful function in that it is utilitarian and idealistic. In other words, English is important in an international business context and makes communication and mutual understanding possible. English in business communication is regarded as a neutral, cultureless language to be used to be successful in business. It is also seen as the international business language, which makes it unnecessary for native speakers of English to learn a foreign language.

The claim by Nickerson (2005) is true to some extent. Indeed, English has grown to become a *lingua franca* in the world of advertising as it allows brands to promote their products on an international level rather than only in their country of origin. In this case, English entails economic success. However, the claim that English is neutral and cultureless could be subject to criticism. Any language that exists is characterized by its cultural, religious, political backgrounds and the beliefs that stand behind it. In the case of English, we believe that it is highly misleading to claim it as a neutral and cultureless language. The underestimation of the pragmatic effect of the English language leads to the elimination of many social phenomena that can be deduced from the sole fact that English, like any language, is not neutral and carries a baggage of cultural, political, economic, and social factors.

Americanization is a phenomenon that demonstrates that language is not innocent and cannot be neutral. The fact that through the English language, many countries outside the United States of America were influenced by the American culture and business, including their media, cuisine, business practices, popular culture, technology, and political techniques. Advertising is an element through which language presents itself with many variables (e.g., culture, beliefs) that the average TV viewer may not pay attention to, but which are there and may present agendas that are unconsciously introduced to the audience. Research is a key element in uncovering such phenomena by investigating our surroundings and trying to understand the different underlying layers of what we are visually exposed to on a daily basis.

After trademarks, slogans represent 23% of our linguistic landscape corpus. Slogans represent the identity of the product; therefore, excluding them from advertisements is prohibited by law. However, the representation of slogans is submitted to several rules in France. For instance, representing translations of slogans is necessary and required by law (Law n° 94-665 of 4th August 1994). On their website, the CSA (*Conseil Supérieur de l'Audiovisuel*) answers the question regarding the use of foreign languages in advertisements and reports that:

Le premier alinéa de l'article 20-1 de la loi du 30 septembre 1986 modifiée relative à la liberté de communication, dans laquelle a été partiellement intégrée la loi du 4 août 1994 relative { l'emploi de la langue française, prévoit que « *l'emploi du français est obligatoire dans l'ensemble des émissions et des messages publicitaires des organismes et services de communication audiovisuelle (...)* ». Toutefois, des mentions en langue étrangère peuvent être utilisées dans les messages publicitaires à condition que leur traduction en français soit « *aussi lisible, audible ou intelligible que la présentation en langue étrangère* », conformément au quatrième alinéa de l'article précité. Le Conseil veille à la bonne application de ces dispositions.⁴¹

We can say that slogans hold a symbolic function rather than an informational one. This is because, for the most part, slogans do not give a lot of information about the product or what it is used for. It is a catchy and memorable motto or phrase that advertisers choose for an advertised product. Understanding English slogans and their pragmatic meaning can be challenging for the average French TV viewer; therefore, providing a translation is necessary.

The last pattern that holds the smallest percentage, which is very insignificant in comparison with other patterns, is product description. These findings can be explained by the fact that advertisers try to be as clear as possible when it comes to delivering essential information about the product to the consumer. Indeed, we still have linguistic items that describe the product such as *chewing gum, cool, fun, fresh*, etc. Yet, these tokens are already included in the French lexicon (e.g., *chewing gum, fun, cool*), or they are easy to understand because they are phonologically close to their equivalent in the French language (e.g., *fresh* (Eng) = *fraiche, frais* (Fr)). In the rare cases where the tokens used to describe a product are less frequent and challenging to understand, they are accompanied by their translations.

⁴¹The first paragraph of article 20-1 of the amended law of September 30, 1986, relating to freedom of communication, in which the law of August 4, 1994, relating to the use of the French language has been partially incorporated, provides that “the use of French is compulsory in all programs and advertising messages from audiovisual communication organizations and services (...)”. However, references in a foreign language may be used in advertising messages provided that their translation into French is “as legible, audible or intelligible as the presentation in a foreign language”, in accordance with the fourth paragraph of the aforementioned article. The Board ensures the proper application of these provisions (personal translation).

3.3 Linguistic soundscape versus linguistic landscape: a comparative analysis

After discussing the two studied variables separately (linguistic soundscape and linguistic landscape), in this section, we will combine them to establish the similarities and differences between them. This discussion will eventually lead to the evaluation of the sociolinguistic status of English in France. Before diving into a comparative analysis between the linguistic soundscape and landscape in terms of English language representation, we shall first compare the two corpora with regard to the number of total tokens and see what this can tell us about each variable. Table 15 presents the total number of tokens in each corpus.

Variable	Total number of tokens
Linguistic soundscape	4929
Linguistic landscape	3665

Table 15: Total number of tokens in the linguistic soundscape and landscape

We notice that the linguistic soundscape is much richer in linguistic items in comparison to the linguistic landscape. This difference can be explained by the fact that advertisers rely highly on the soundscape to provide the maximum amount of information about a certain product, whereas the linguistic landscape shares the space with visual material (images, videos) which leaves little room for linguistic items. For instance, we have noticed that in the linguistic soundscape, the speaker gives full complete sentences, whereas the linguistic landscape only uses keywords to describe the product or short phrases for slogans. Later on, in this chapter, we will also discuss the neurolinguistic effect of what we hear versus what we see and how these two different types of exposure affect our perception of language.

Our corpus revealed that the English language in the linguistic landscape is much more significant than in the linguistic soundscape. Table 16 recalls these results:

	English	French
Linguistic soundscape	8.9%	91.1%
Linguistic landscape	21%	79%

Table 16: English language representation in the linguistic soundscape and landscape of TV advertisements

At first glance, Table 16 reveals that the presence of the English language is more significant in the linguistic landscape than in the linguistic soundscape. To see if the observed difference between the two sets of corpora is likely to be the result of chance alone, or is actually statistically significant (Brezina, 2018), we conducted a statistical significance test (log-likelihood). The test revealed that, indeed, the amount of English presented in the written form is more significant than that in the spoken form. In fact, the linguistic landscape contains double the amount of English tokens than that presented in the linguistic soundscape. This significant difference can be due to many factors that will be mentioned later on in this chapter, but first, we will discuss these findings using the results that yield from the identified patterns. Table 17 summarizes the different patterns presented in the soundscape and landscape:

	Linguistic soundscape	Linguistic landscape
Trademarks	40%	29%
Slogans	11%	23%
Product descriptions	10%	13%
Dual function	14%	35%

Table 17: Patterns that English takes in the linguistic soundscape and landscape

We notice that trademarks are more frequent in the linguistic soundscape than in the linguistic landscape. We can say that this finding is due to the fact that, in the soundscape, the trademarks are mentioned several times, whereas, in the linguistic landscape, trademarks are shown once to twice. That is, at the beginning and/or end of the ad.

Slogans are an interesting pattern in which language representation is affected by the means through which it is introduced (spoken, written). The percentage of slogans in the linguistic soundscape is very insignificant in comparison to the linguistic landscape. This is because slogans in English are rarely articulated, whereas the linguistic landscape always shows the English slogans. When looking at regulations and laws, we found that while the landscape has given much attention to the linguistic items presented in it, there is not much information regarding the soundscape. Legally, slogans must be present on the TV screen and a translation must be shown. These regulations are indeed demonstrated in our linguistic landscape corpus. However, there is not much said about the linguistic soundscape. It seems that these rules do not apply to the linguistic soundscape perhaps because there is not much English presented in the first place. We can say that because slogans are not presented in the linguistic soundscape, it is expected that no translation is provided. These findings suggest that the linguistic landscape is more important than

the linguistic soundscape as it has been given much more attention. Below are examples of advertisements that provide slogans in the English language on their linguistic landscape, but are absent in the linguistic soundscape:

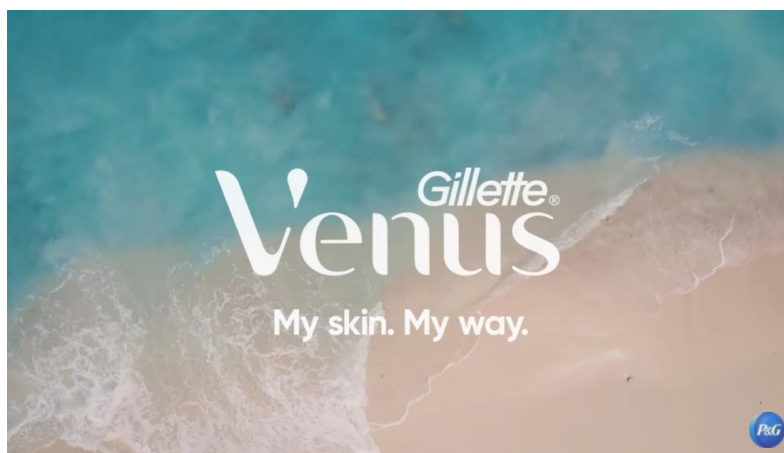


Image 11: Slogan for the brand Gillette



Image 12: Slogan for the brand Delonghi



Image 13: Slogan for the brand Pilot Frixion

Undoubtedly, the fact that English linguistic items presented in the linguistic landscape do not have their equivalent in the soundscape reveals attitudes of the top-down processing towards the representation of English in France. That is, if English is only present in the linguistic landscape due to legal reasons, and is almost absent in the linguistic soundscape, the attitude towards it is rather negative. This attitude may be due to different reasons which can be divided into two categories: pragmatic and practical. The pragmatic reasons are complex and present a long-term vision that is affected by attitudes toward different social phenomena such as language attitudes, multilingualism, language planning, language policies, and so on. The pragmatic reasons that may result in our findings may be caused by the need to preserve and protect national French identity and trying to save French culture from Americanization which has affected every part of the world. The practical reasons have a completely different motive due to which English is rarely present in the linguistic soundscape. The reason may simply be the fact that the linguistic soundscape is the primary source of information in TV advertisements. This means that including a significant amount of English tokens may hinder the process of promoting and introducing a product or a service, and this can have serious effects on the channel's profits.

The amount of English tokens used to describe products is approximately similar in both the linguistic soundscape (10%) and landscape (13%). These results can be explained by the simple fact that English tokens that allow the description of a product may be challenging to the average French TV viewer. The majority of the words used to describe products are vocabulary items that are borrowed from the English language but can be found in the French dictionary. Below are examples of English tokens that we were able to find in the *Larousse* dictionary⁴²:

Linguistic item	Definition in Larousse
Cool	Adjectif invariable (Réf. ortho. adjectif) (anglais <i>cool</i> , froid) 1.Familier. Calme, décontracté, détendu. 2. Par Extension. Tolérant ; arrangeant : Sa mère est cool.
Fun	Adjectif invariable (mot anglais signifiant <i>amusement</i>) Familier. Amusant, drôle.
Show	nom masculin (anglais <i>show</i> , spectacle) Spectacle de variétés centré sur une vedette.

⁴² *Larousse* is a French publishing house specializing in reference works such as dictionaries. It was founded in 1852 by Pierre Larousse, a French grammarian, lexicographer, and encyclopedist.

Box	nom féminin (mot anglais) Informatique Boîtier de connexion qui comprend divers matériels informatiques (modem ADSL, disque dur, processeur, etc.) assurant un accès à Internet et offrant différents services selon les modèles (téléphonie IP, télévision IP, Wi-Fi, routeur...)
Boss	nom masculin (américain <i>boss</i> , patron). 1. Familier. Chef d'entreprise, patron. (On dit aussi <i>big boss</i> .) 2. Personnage politique dont l'influence s'appuie sur une organisation, la « machine », fortement structurée et hiérarchisée

Table 18: English tokens available in the *Larousse dictionary*

We can also notice in our corpora some lexical cognates which are words that are similar across languages. In our corpus, we have tokens such as *emission*, *capable*, and *passion* that are similar in English and French which makes their understanding much easier. Indeed, the linguistic soundscape and landscape share English tokens that we can find in French dictionaries. However, looking closely and separately at our corpora, we have noticed that most of the tokens that are used in the linguistic landscape are most challenging and are not necessarily found in the French dictionary or everyday speech, whereas the linguistic soundscape is, for the most part, composed of vocabulary items that are easier to understand and which the general public has already heard before (e.g., *cool*, *fun*). This can be due to the fact that authorities operating on the top-down processing cannot modify, switch, or replace words in the trademarks, slogans, or product descriptions because they were chosen by the brand and cannot, legally, be modified in any shape or form. For the linguistic soundscape, the absence of rigid laws to regulate it gives more freedom to the top-down processing to customize the spoken messages in a way that will be understood by the TV viewers and suits their linguistic agenda. Through these findings, we can deduce that the linguistic soundscape presents a realistic image of the status and an attitude towards the representation of the English language, whereas the linguistic landscape provides us with an altered image that primarily takes into account laws and regulations, and packages the TV advertisement in a way that agrees with the agendas of different parties, being the authorities, law, brand owners and TV viewers.

3.4 The sociolinguistic status of English in France

Our results showed that the representation of English differs according to the means through which it is presented and the patterns it is employed in. The statistical significance between the amount of English presented in the linguistic landscape and soundscape presented in our corpus led us to seek qualitative data that would help us explain our findings and deduce the sociolinguistic status of English in France.

Because our paper is mostly interested in the top-down processing, we intentionally targeted documents that are provided by entities that represent this type of processing. From law articles to documents sourced from parties who are responsible for language planning, we present all the pieces of information that are relevant to the purpose of this research paper and that will contribute to answering our last research question.

As briefly mentioned above, the Toubon Law is one of the key elements that helps us understand the linguistic context in France. Indeed, it does not give us a global image of linguistic representation in France; however, it is one of the primary legal documents that provide linguistic regulation in the linguistic landscape. This law was first introduced twenty-seven years ago and was named after former minister of culture Jacques Toubon. Image 14 shows the extent to which the linguistic landscape needs to abide by several rules that allow the state to preserve the French language and save it from the influence of other languages, such as the English language which dominates as the language of business and scientific research.

Another law that should be mentioned at this point is the Léotard Law⁴³ which is a French law that regulates the sector of telecommunications. This law is named after the Minister of Culture François Léotard who introduced it. This law allowed the deregulation of the sector and the liberalization of the sector of cable networks and cellular companies.

If we consider language representation as one form of communication freedom, the Toubon and Léotard Laws present two ends of a spectrum. On one hand, the Toubon Law tries to regulate which languages are presented and how much of a foreign language is allowed. In fact, the Toubon Law went as far as reporting the type of English tokens authorized in the linguistic landscape (D. King, 2008, as cited by K. Bhatia, 2008). On the other hand, the Léotard Law calls for freedom in the telecommunications sector, which includes the choice of language(s). Despite being so

⁴³ Law No. 86-1067 of September 30, 1986.

different, the combination of these two laws creates an equilibrium that, at the same time, promotes linguistic freedom and the preservation of the French language.

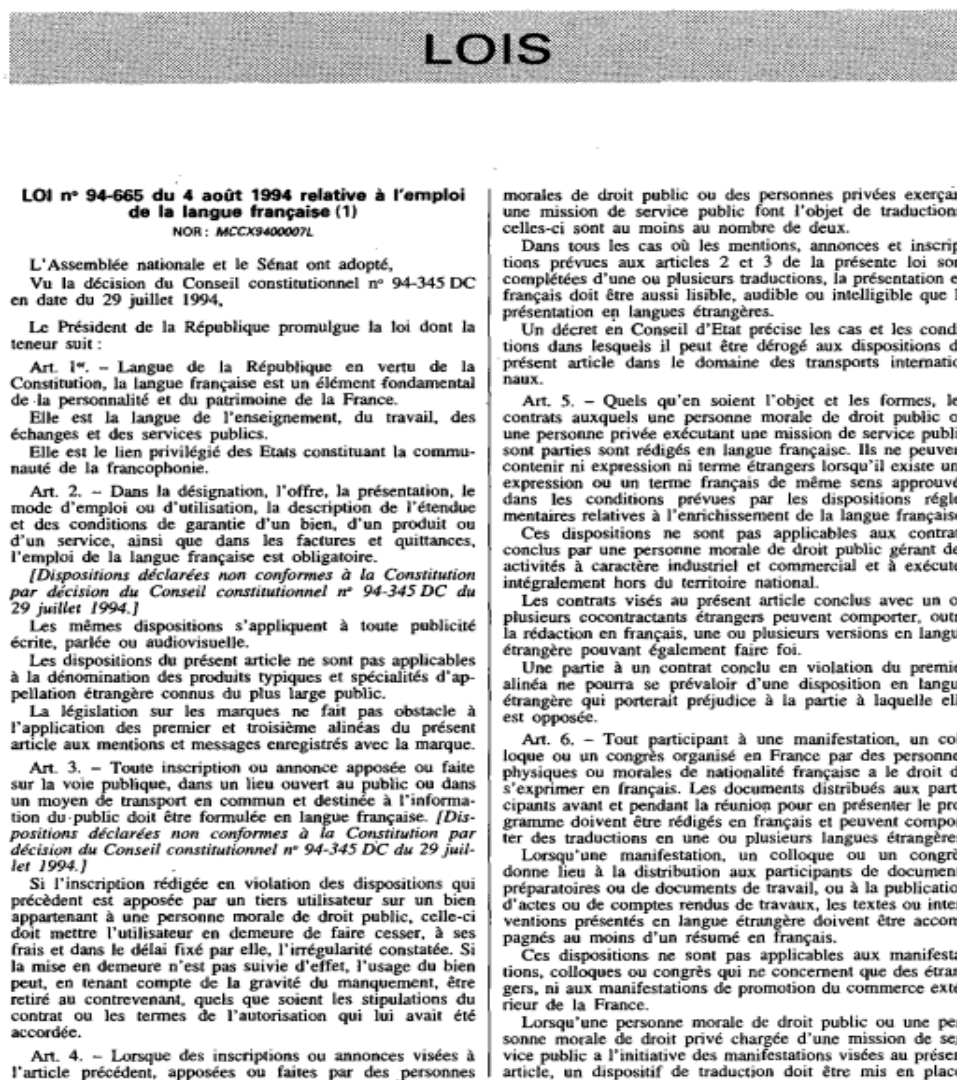


Image 14: Toubon law⁴⁴

Looking back at the year when the Toubon Law was introduced shows us the intention and the purpose of this law. The year 1994 was rich in terms of technological advancement; it was the year the first World Wide Web was invented by Tim Berners-Lee. The French government foresaw the extent to which these technological advancements would affect the French language and introduced the Toubon Law in hopes to preserve the French language in media, government publications, advertisements, education, and the workplace. As shown in our corpora, the Toubon

⁴⁴ Source: Official Journal of the French Republic.

Law still faces many challenges in an ever-growing anglicized world where exposure to the English language is inevitable.

The French Academy⁴⁵ is another entity that is worth mentioning when talking about foreign language representation in France. The French Academy is the primary council that deals with all the matters related to the French language. It was first introduced in 1635 by the chief minister of King Louis XIII, Cardinal Richelieu. By 1793, the French Academy faced suppression but was restored in 1803 by Napoleon Bonaparte during the French Revolution.⁴⁶

The French Academy serves as the official guardian of the French language. This entity's mission is to provide a constant evaluation of the state of affairs of the different languages that are present on the French territory. Based on this assessment, recommendations are provided to improve the linguistic environment and to match it to agendas that are mainly political, social, and economic. The French Academy published its last report in February 2022 where it warns "*an explosion in the use of anglicisms by organizations risks social division*"⁴⁷. In its report, the French Academy looks at different parties that represent language in the linguistic landscape of France such as:

- **institutional sites at the national level:** ministries, various administrations;
- **territorial entities:** town halls, regional councils, departmental councils, tourist offices;
- **educational and research establishments:** universities, schools, training organizations;
- **institutions in the cultural field:** museums, foundations, festivals, tourist sites;
- **businesses and corporations, in particular large groups, of public or private status.** (personal translation)⁴⁸

The evaluation of these organizations occurs on the level of the linguistic items that they chose to present their product or service with. In the report, we have many examples that look at the

⁴⁵ L'Académie Française.

⁴⁶ Source: *Encyclopedia Britannica*.

⁴⁷ As described by the *Guardian* newspaper.

⁴⁸ Original text as reported in the French Academy's report:

- **des sites institutionnels à l'échelle nationale :** ministères, administrations diverses ;
- **des entités territoriales :** mairies, conseils régionaux, conseils départementaux, offices de tourisme ;
- **des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche :** universités, écoles, organismes de formation ;
- **des institutions relevant du domaine culturel :** musées, fondations, festivals, sites touristiques ;
- **des entreprises et sociétés, en particulier de grands groupes, de statut public ou privé.**

composition of trademarks and slogans and provide a detailed linguistic description of the tokens that compose them. Below are some of the examples discussed in the French Academy's report:




Brand/ product/ service	Trademark
Business France	
Atout France	
French impact	
Quai Branly Museum	
Annecy mountains	

Table 19: Example of brands discussed in the French Academy's reports

The fact that the French Academy's report only tackles elements of the linguistic landscape and none of the linguistic soundscape tells us a lot about English language representation in France. That is, similar to our findings, English is much more significant in the linguistic landscape which brings more attention and interest from top-down parties. For instance, the rise of English tokens in the linguistic landscape alerted the French Academy and this resulted in the collection of data that supported their claims. In addition to Table 19, the report also mentions the outside environment which shows an increasing number of English tokens, especially in popular landmarks that attract many tourists. Below are some of the images reported in the French Academy's report that demonstrate English language representation in open spaces:



Image 15: English phrase projected on the Eiffel tower



Image 16: English phrase in the linguistic landscape of Lyon

Image 17: English phrase in the linguistic landscape of Nice

Undoubtedly, we cannot neglect the fact that English is absent in its oral form in several media. Our corpus shows that although English is not significant in the linguistic soundscape, it is still present with interesting linguistic patterns that are worth investigating and discussing. The discrepancy between the representation of English in the linguistic landscape and soundscape will be later discussed with neurolinguistic, sociolinguistic, and psycholinguistic evidence that may help us understand why English is mostly present in its written form.

Similar to the French Academy's reports and the Toubon Law, the *Conseil Supérieur de l'Audiovisuel* (CSA) reports do not make any distinction between foreign language representation in the linguistic soundscape and landscape. Before diving into further analysis, we first have to define and understand the role that the CSA plays in the French linguistic context. For this purpose, we recall some sections from our paper (Taouss, 2021) where we introduced this entity.

In France, the CSA is the official institution that is in charge of regulating electronic media such as TV and radio. For many decades, the French government ensured the existence of entities that

regulate the manner through which media are represented. It first started with the *Haute Autorité de la Communication Audiovisuelle* which was created in 1982, and was replaced by the *Commission Nationale de la Communication et des Libertés (CNCL)* in 1986. By 1989, the *Conseil supérieur de l'audiovisuel (CSA)* came to replace the *Commission Nationale de la Communication et des Libertés (CNCL)*.

The CSA is composed of different members that are in charge of different areas related to the sector of media. In the case of television, Benoît Loutrel (president) and Juliette Théry (vice president) supervise the group that is in charge of different services on TV channels, being public, private, free, paid national, or local. According to the information provided on the official CSA website, this group is concerned with examining and preparing all decisions concerning the access to the market, their authorizations, and their agreements, including calls for applications. Generally, this group deals with areas relating to the economic regulation of television channels such as airing different TV advertisements. Every year, the CSA produces reports that give detailed information about different radio and TV channels. The image below shows the CSA report from the year 2019 and the chapters it includes:



Report annuel 2019	
- →	Sommaire
Avant-propos	8
1. Régulation économique et technologique	12
2. Soutien à la création	74
3. Responsabilités sociétales et démocratiques des médias audiovisuels et numériques	84
4. Audiovisuel public	112
5. Actions internationale et territoriale	126
6. Vie du CSA	134
Annexes	148

Image 18: Main chapters of the 2019 annual CSA report

The CSA annual reports tackle television and radio as two separate entities, each with its own properties and elements that characterize it. The separation of media outlets allows a detailed analysis of the different phenomena that can only occur in each medium. For example, the image below demonstrates the separation between TV and radio and some of the main titles that are tackled in each section. The Table of Contents of these reports allows us to evaluate the areas that the French authorities think are of great importance and that are worthy of reporting and discussing:

Rapport annuel 2019

- → **Régulation économique et technologique**

La télévision 14

PANORAMA DE L'OFFRE 14

 La réception de la télévision numérique 14

 Les chaînes hertziennes 16

 La structure des offres de TNT gratuite et payante par type d'opérateur 16

 Les évolutions de la télévision numérique hertzienne gratuite 18

 Procédures de reconduction pour 14 chaînes de la TNT 20

 Les chaînes des autres réseaux 21

FINANCEMENT ET DONNÉES ÉCONOMIQUES 22

 Le marché publicitaire 22

 Le poids économique du secteur télévisuel 24

 Le financement des télévisions locales hertziennes privées en 2018 30

LES AUDIENCES 33

VIE DES OPÉRATEURS 38

 La vie des éditeurs 38

 La vie du réseau 43

PERSPECTIVES : LA MODERNISATION DE LA PLATEFORME TNT 49

La radio 50

PANORAMA DE L'OFFRE 50

 Le marché des récepteurs compatibles avec le DAB+ 51

FINANCEMENT 52

 Le marché publicitaire de la radio 52

LES AUDIENCES 54

 Au niveau national 54

VIE DES OPÉRATEURS 55

 La bande FM 55

 Le DAB+ 60

Image 19: Content of the technological and economic regulations chapter from the 2019 annual CSA report

As discussed in the first part of this research paper, media have a primary economic aspect that is acknowledged and highlighted by the CSA. In the technological and economic regulations chapter, in the television unit, we find a section that is exclusively concerned with the market of advertising where commercial breaks are discussed in light of the growing economy of France, taking into account the role that TV shows, product advertisements, and streaming services play in gaining profit by exposing the consumer through the regulated and authorized use of language and other elements.

It is essential to elaborate and reflect on the use of language on French TV, especially in TV advertisements. At this point, it is acknowledged that the French government aims to promote the French language in the name of saving its ethnolinguistic vitality that has become threatened by languages that hold economic power such as the English language which has grown to be present in every society for its diverse functions.

Looking closely at the annual CSA reports, we can notice that one section named *Recommendations relating to the use of the French language* is always present. This section provides much information about the French speaking world and all the efforts that have been taken to ensure that the French language is well presented and that French citizens are satisfied with that representation. The 2019 CSA report shows the efforts that have been made to promote the French language and recalls the creation of an event called *Francophonie et inégalités*⁴⁹ that was first introduced in 2015 and was considered as a means to promote the use of the French language by airing several shows of which the content revolved around the preservation of the French language on different TV and radio channels.

Undoubtedly, many efforts have been made to eliminate the maximum amount of foreign languages in the French linguistic landscape. However, a dominant and powerful language, such as English, will always find a way to penetrate the linguistic landscape of France. Feeling threatened by the English language, French citizens explain their concerns on the CSA website, and they are answered by the authorities who explain the linguistic choices on TV in light of the laws, guidelines, and principles of the French Republic. Because many TV advertisements were originally produced in English, including them on French TV channels was a challenge.

⁴⁹ Personal translation: Francophonie and inequalities.

Francophonie (French term) refers to the nations where French is the first, official, or culturally significant language.

Authorities were in a dilemma about whether they needed to change the whole linguistic content of these advertisements, or keep their identity and authenticity in the name of respecting the freedom of communication and expression (Law n° 86-1067 of 30th September 1986), and airing them in their original language. The 2005 CSA report discussed the matter and claims that:

Under section 3-1 of the Law of 30 September 2006 as amended, the CSA is in charge of ensuring that the French language and French culture are protected and illustrated by the audiovisual media. Therefore, in January 2005, it issued a recommendation reminding television channels and radio stations of their obligations in respect thereto under applicable laws and regulations and under the 46 annual report - summary 2005 agreement into which they have entered with the CSA. In the face of over-abundant usage on the air of English or anglicized terms, the Conseil thought it fit to issue this reminder so as to preserve both the understandability of audiovisual communication and French cultural identity, while not hampering freedom of communication.⁵⁰

As seen above, the CSA agrees on the use of English words, but under certain conditions. The CSA requires a French translation of the English words provided. The images provided above demonstrate the truthfulness of this claim (Images 6, 7, 8).

The analysis of the qualitative data supports our quantitative findings. We believe that the significant amount of English in the linguistic landscape is the main reason why we have this rich discussion and alertness to anglicisms. We can say that, in France, the linguistic soundscape is marginalized and is not given much attention by the top-down processing. This may be due to the fact that authorities believe that visual exposure to language has more effect on TV viewers and therefore, they give it more importance, resources, and coverage.

As has been reported in the first chapter of this research paper (the review of the literature), studies in the field of neurolinguistics show that linguistic exposure through reading is much more powerful than listening, and results in recalling, remembering, and acquiring linguistic items. This means that regardless of the efforts that have been made by law, the French Academy, the CSA, and other powerful entities, the slightest exposure, which we believe is inevitable, can result in English language acquisition. This claim is highly relevant as it is demonstrated in everyday life.

⁵⁰ Source: CSA official website.

https://www.csa.fr/var/ezflow_site/storage/csa/rapport2005/donnees/synthese/gb_events.htm

Words such as *cool*, *fun*, *drive* and *collect*, and *shipping* are extensively used in regular, daily, colloquial speech, especially by the French youth that is more exposed to social media. These words can also be found in French dictionaries (Table 18) which further supports the idea that these English tokens have been successfully integrated into the French lexicon. Given that language is not neutral and is ideologically saturated with culture, beliefs, and hidden agendas, we may ask the following question: do these English words affect in any shape or form the French identity or disturb the language planning/policy of France? Answering this question will help us understand the vision and the perception of the top-down processing and how they tolerate these words and do not provide any French translation for them on the TV screen.

Indeed, language is not neutral. It is a complex construct that each speech community shapes in its own way to serve a communicative, political, or economic purpose. The fact that many languages have the same root, yet are different in many aspects - phonologically, phonetically, syntactically, semantically, morphologically, and pragmatically - supports the idea that culture is a core element that greatly controls language. Undoubtedly, English words such as *cool* and *fun* reflect the culture of English-speaking countries, especially American culture (Flaitz, 2007). However, we believe that they are not very culturally loaded.⁵¹ This is because they are very mainstream and do not impose a strong cultural impact that may affect the French identity.

In discussing the effect of English words on TV viewers, it is important to understand what we mean when we say that we are knowledgeable about a word. For example, Milton and Treffers-Dallar (2013) ask if the recognition of the word form is enough to say that we know a word, or do we combine the knowledge of the word and the form to say that we know a word. In the case where the word has many meanings, do we need to know all the meanings of that word form to be knowledgeable about a word? Nation (2001) explained vocabulary knowledge in a broad perspective in a model named *what is involved in knowing a word*. On one hand, Nation (2001) detailed the knowledge of a word into three basic components. Each of these components is subdivided into three areas of word knowledge; the knowledge of the word form: spoken, written, and word parts; the knowledge of the word meaning: the connection between the form and the meaning, the concept, and its referents and associations; the knowledge of the use of the word

⁵¹ Culture-loaded linguistic items are words, idioms, or expressions that have a specific meaning in a particular culture. These words are embedded in their distinctive culture which necessitates the familiarity with the culture to understand their cultural implications.

which includes grammar functions, collocations, and constraints of use. Each of these sub-areas can be known either receptively or productively as shown in Table 20.

As shown below, many researchers agree that word knowledge consists of different components, dimensions, or levels, and yet no universal model that defines the knowledge of a word has been provided, which further shows how challenging it is to explain what we mean by word knowledge. Most prominent researchers in the field divide vocabulary knowledge into two main categories: receptive vocabulary knowledge and productive vocabulary knowledge (Laufer, 1998; Laufer & Paribakht, 1998; Henriksen, 1999; Nation, 2001; Read, 2000; Schmitt, 2014). Yet, some researchers created another categorization to present vocabulary knowledge. For example, Harmer (2001) reports that vocabulary knowledge is divided into the active vocabulary that a person can use and recall orally, and passive vocabulary knowledge that individuals recognize when they are exposed to a certain word, but cannot produce it orally nor use it in writing. This definition limits the knowledge of receptive and productive vocabulary just to function, meaning, and word structure, as opposed to the model of Nation (2001), cited above which combines different aspects that make word meaning, namely form (pronunciation, spelling, and the word parts); meaning (structure or meaning of words, ideas, and preferences, a combination of words); and use (syntax, collocation, constraints in use). The model below (Table 20) by Nation (2001) provides all the aspects of vocabulary knowledge that can help researchers design measurement instruments to provide effective ways to research vocabulary and find better ways to teach it.

Note: R= receptive, P= productive

Form	Spoken	R	What does the word sound like?
		P	How is the word pronounced?
	Written	R	What does the word look like?
		P	How is the word spelled and written?
	Word parts	R	What parts are recognizable in this word?
		P	What word parts are needed to express the meaning?
Meaning	Form and meaning	R	What meaning does this word form signal?
		P	What word form can be used to express this meaning?

	Concepts and references	R	What is included in the concept?
		P	What items can the concept refer to?
	Associations	R	What other words does this word make us think of?
		P	What other words could we use instead with this one?
	Grammatical functions	R	In what pattern does the word occur?
		P	In what pattern must we use this word?
Use	Collocations	R	What words or types of words occur with this one?
		P	What words or types of words must we use with this one?
	Constraints of use	R	Where, when and how often would we meet this word?
		P	Where, when, and how often can we use this word?

Table 20: What is involved in knowing a word?

On the other hand, Daller et al. (2007) claim that vocabulary knowledge consists of three dimensions: Lexical breadth (lexical size); that is how many words a person knows without taking into account how well they know them; Lexical depth: how well the individual knows the words; and Fluency, which is related to how quickly a person can retrieve the form or the meaning of a given word from memory and use it when necessary. Another division of vocabulary knowledge is that of Henriksen (1999) who reports that vocabulary knowledge has three dimensions. The first is the partial-to-precise knowledge that reflects the level of meaning and understanding. The second dimension is the depth of knowledge dimension, such as the construction of the system showing the relationship between words. The third dimension is the receptive-productive dimension which shows the individual's control and access to knowledge about the word. Palmberg (cited in Laufer *et al.* 2004, p.400) claims that lexical knowledge "consists of progressive levels of knowledge, starting with a superficial familiarity with the word and ending with the ability to use the word correctly in free production".

As seen above, vocabulary knowledge is highly complex where different language skills are included. The reason behind providing this analysis is the need to report that it takes a lot to learn a

word (e.g., frequency, knowledge of form, meaning, and function). Therefore, even if there are many English tokens in the linguistic landscape (written form), the fact that they are not spoken hinders their acquisition (Nation, 2001). Combining these results with our findings allows us to have an image of bottom-up processing. That is, what happens on the level of cognition of TV viewers.

To conclude, we can say that discussing our findings led to four main conclusions: the first is that English is indeed present in French TV advertisements, yet it takes up very little space in the linguistic landscape and soundscape of France. This is due to all the efforts that have been made by entities operating on the level of the top-down processing (Toubon and Léotard Laws, the French Academy, CSA annual reports). The fact that English is present in French TV advertisements is only because the majority of the brands that appear on TV choose to advertise their products and services in English which requires entities in the top-down processing, by law, to respect their linguistic choice and find solutions such as providing translations in the linguistic landscape. That is, if the constitution did not put regulation regarding the matter, English would mostly be neglected and even purposely removed to establish a monolingual linguistic landscape and soundscape which is an ideal that French authorities seek to achieve. An example that is not related to TV advertisements, yet very relevant to our argument is the fact that in May 2022 *France* *ban[ned] English gaming tech jargon in push to preserve language purity*⁵². The ministry of culture saw that anglicisms are widespread in the sector of video games. This resulted in the modification of the video game jargon by replacing English tokens, such as *e-sport* and *streaming*, with French equivalents.

Our inferential and descriptive statistics allowed us to draw an important finding that has, to the best of our knowledge, not been discussed in the literature related to the French linguistic context. We were able to compare the linguistic soundscape and landscape in terms of the number of English tokens presented in each one, and the percentage of the different patterns where it is employed. The linguistic landscape showed itself to be richer in English tokens as opposed to the linguistic soundscape that used very little English – percentages that our statistics classified as not significant. We also uncovered the difference in the type of words used and their level of difficulty. The linguistic landscape contains more challenging words that are mostly accompanied

⁵² Title of the article in the Guardian newspaper (31/04/2022).

by their translations whereas the linguistic soundscape uses very simple and less challenging English tokens. We attributed this finding to the fact that the linguistic soundscape has a primarily informational function while the linguistic landscape combines both an informational and a symbolic function.

Basing our analysis of neurolinguistic evidence, we deduced that the English used in TV advertisements does not have a strong effect on individuals exposed to it and may not result in the acquisition of new tokens, especially less frequent words. Words such as *cool* and *fun* are an example of the generic linguistic items that may be retained. We believe that although these words are not neutral, they are quite basic and not culturally loaded to a level that may affect the French culture or identity (Flaitz, 2007). Therefore, based on our corpora, we can say that English in the linguistic landscape and soundscape in TV advertisements does not present a real threat to the ethnographic vitality of the French language. We must add that these results are the fruit of a lot of efforts that go into the fields of language planning and language policy that France adopts to fight against anglicisms and encourage the representation of the French language.

Our analysis of the previously reported quantitative and qualitative data allowed us to uncover much information about the linguistic soundscape and landscape and this led us to deduce that English has a low sociolinguistic status in France. The type and amount of English used does not entail linguistic variation and diversity in French TV advertisements. The efforts that have been made by authorities support a monolingual agenda that prioritizes the French language and tries to control English language representation.

Unlike in many European countries, the English language does not function as a *lingua franca* in France. In fact, it is perceived in a negative light as it is considered a threat that may affect the vitality of the French language and the identity of its speakers. It is fair to say that as long as English is perceived through a negative lens, the probability of the rise in its tokens in TV advertisements is very low, especially with both types of processing supporting the monolingual agenda. That is to say the entities on the top-down processing (Law, the French Academy, CSA) and the bottom-up processing (e.g., French citizens) (Schneider, 2017).

GENERAL CONCLUSION

The study of the linguistic soundscape and landscape of a certain environment is of paramount importance. It is one of the means that provides an objective evaluation of the linguistic state of a territory or region. Studies in these fields do not only uncover different social phenomena such as multilingualism, ethnographic vitality, language attitudes, etc, but they also provide important implications such as how to organize and plan the linguistic environment in terms of written and spoken language(s), and the different policies that may lead to that. In this study, we investigated the representation of the English language in the linguistic soundscape and landscape. The choice of this research topic was based on the fact that there is no literature that combines the written and spoken aspects of English in France. Narrowing down our research to TV advertisements, we collected a rich corpus of transcribed linguistic tokens from the soundscape and landscape of French TV channels. In discussing our inferential statistics, we adopted perspectives from different disciplines such as sociolinguistic, neurolinguistic, psycholinguistics, economics, and politics. This is because we believe that to study a social phenomenon, researchers must acknowledge all the elements and variables that affect it. Providing an interdisciplinary discussion that demonstrates a synergy between different research fields is proof of the complexity of social contexts where language(s) exists.

Our study is an extension of our previous research paper (Taouss, 2021). This allowed us to revisit many concepts and recycle our corpora to fit the purpose of the present research paper. To answer our research questions, we sought to divide our paper into three chapters. The first reviews the literature on the two studied variables (linguistic soundscape, linguistic landscape). The second presents the conducted study and a descriptive account of the research methodology (research questions, research hypotheses, instruments of measurement, data collection, data analysis procedure). This chapter also introduces descriptive and inferential results that resulted from the analysis of our corpora through the software AntConc. Our final and third chapter analyzes and discusses our previously mentioned quantitative data with evidence from official documents such as Laws (Toubon Law, Léotard Law), CSA annual reports, and the French Academy's reports which represent the top-down processing. We believe that adopting a mixed research design that combines the analysis of quantitative and qualitative data to discuss the linguistic soundscape and landscape in France is essential because it enables us to discuss all the variables that allow us to draw conclusions on the sociolinguistic status of English in France.

Our study allowed us to answer our two first research questions which reply on a solid methodology that uses inferential statistical evidence. We concluded that there is a statistically significant difference between the English presented in the soundscape and that presented in the landscape. English tokens are more prominent in the linguistic landscape of TV advertisements. Our analysis of the patterns that employ English showed that the percentage of trademarks, slogans, and product description differs according to the means through which they are presented (written or spoken form). The linguistic landscape demonstrates the representation of more patterns than the linguistic soundscape. Analyzing qualitative data that addresses English language representation in French television shows that our results go hand in hand with the claims of many authorities that operate on the level of the top-down processing. Evidence from law articles (Toubon Law, L  otard Law) showed that the use of English in trademarks and slogans is necessary. However, this rule only applies to the landscape, hence, more English in the written form. This finding allowed us to deduce that the use of English in French TV advertisements is mostly for legal purposes and partly for symbolic purposes rather than informational functions. We also uncovered some of the attitudes of higher authorities towards anglicism. The French Academy warns the spread of English in France and calls for measures to put an end to the representation of English in the linguistic landscape of France. All of these results allowed us to answer our third research question and conclude that the English language has a low sociolinguistic status in France. This is because a lot of efforts are made by different authorities to limit the representation of linguistic items in English.

Undoubtedly, as shown in our methodology, we tried to take into account many elements to guarantee the accuracy of our research paper. For example, when faced with a confounding variable, we tried to control it by conducting a small scale study (e.g., exclusion of lyrics from the linguistic soundscape corpus). We also tried to take into account the limitations mentioned in last year's paper (Taouss, 2021) by combining the study of the linguistic landscape with the variable of the linguistic soundscape. This gives us an overall idea of the representation of the English language in French TV advertisements. However, we believe that our research paper has a few limitations that can be improved in future research. In the case of our research paper, we believe that our corpora can be improved by providing a larger corpus over a long period of time with samples from different domains where language is used: education, workplace, family, etc. Indeed, this type of research is very interesting; however, it can only be done on a doctoral level as it

requires time, funding, the compilation of a larger database (corpus), and a more in-depth analysis of the data and the situation of English as a whole.

Taking into account all the previously mentioned limitations will allow us to create more reliable literature in the field of linguistic soundscaping and landscaping. We suggest that future research should provide larger corpora that will enable researchers to make valid generalizations nationwide. For instance, we believe that generalizing on the sociolinguistic status of English in France only through TV advertisements is not enough. Therefore, it is important to build a larger corpus over a long period. It can also be beneficial to conduct a diachronic study on the use of English in advertising. This will allow us to observe the evolution of the usage of English over time, and see if its presence was always limited, or if it only started at a certain point in time. This type of analysis will enable us to track the start of the restricted use of English and the social, political, and economic reasons behind this shift in the attitudes of the top-down processing towards the English language. Future research should also study English language representation through the combination of the two processes: the top-down processing (official authorities) and bottom-up processing (individuals' attitudes). By doing so, we will have a thorough and detailed analysis of the linguistic representation of any foreign language in a specific social context.

GLOSSARY

American Psychological Association (APA) is a scientific and professional organization that is composed of scientists, educators, clinicians, consultants, and students. It came up with the Ethical Code that carries regulations and guidelines for researchers to follow and take into consideration while producing a piece of research in order to make their research honest, credible, and of value.

Anglicism “is often used as a generic name to describe the occurrence of English language elements in other languages” (Onysko, 2007, p.10-11).

Brain plasticity refers to the brain’s ability to change structure and function (Kolb & Whishaw, 1998).

Cityscape is “a term that is already in use in the fields of cultural geography and urban development with an academic journal with ‘Cityscape’ as its title. Since in most places the cityscape due to globalization will not be monolingual, the term ‘*multilingual cityscape*’ would be the most precise. An objection against this neologism could be that it does not translate equally well into other languages” (Gorter, 2006, p.83).

Concentric circles are groups of countries that use the English language to different degrees (Mother tongue, second language, foreign language).

Confounding variables “are variables that obscure the effects of another variable. For the most part, confounding variables are confounding because they serve to confuse and obfuscate both the findings from the data, as well as the conclusions drawn from the study” (Ewert & Sibthorp, 2009, p.377).

Conseil supérieur de l’audiovisuel (CSA) is the official institution that is in charge of regulating electronic media such as TV and radio.

Concordance is a tool in the software AntConc that shows search results in a ‘KWIC’ (Keyword In Context) format. This allows you to see how words and phrases are commonly used in a corpus of texts.

Culture-loaded linguistic items are words, idioms, or expressions that have a specific meaning in a particular culture. These words are embedded in their distinctive culture which necessitates the familiarity with the culture to understand their cultural implications.

Empiricism, in philosophy, signifies the view that all concepts originate in experience, that all concepts are about or applicable to things that can be experienced, or that all rationally acceptable beliefs or propositions are justifiable or knowable only through experience (Definition from *Encyclopedia Britannica*).

Ethnolinguistic vitality is “that which makes a group likely to behave as a distinctive and active collective entity in intergroup situations” (Giles et al. 1977, p.308).

Functional-pragmatics is a linguistic theory that looks at language from a perspective that takes into account its social context.

Global Consumer Culture Positioning is a strategy that “identifies the brand as a symbol of a

given global culture” (Alden *et al.*, 1999, p.77).

Globalness is usually used within the phrase “perceived brand globalness” (PBG) which is a term coined by Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden (2003) to reflect consumer perceptions of a brand as global (i.e. as widely available and accepted across the world).

Hermeneutic Content Analysis is an innovative analysis method. It brings together Hermeneutic and Qualitative Content Analysis joining the principles of content analysis such as coding, categorization, systematization, and interpretation with understanding and reflection (Vieira & de Queiroz, 2017, p.8).

Incidental vocabulary learning is the process of learning vocabulary without the intention of doing so or as a by-product of some other activity (Richards & Schmidt, 2002).

Informational function of a linguistic landscape stands for the amount of information that is deduced from the geographical region and the speech community that inhabits it.

Institutional Review Board (IRB) is an ethical review board that tries its best to detect any aspect of research that goes against the standards set by the Ethical Code and tries to compare the cost and benefit of the research, which can be very complicated and biased.

Lingua franca also known as bridge language and refers to a common language between individuals that do not share the same mother tongue.

Linguistic diversity is the phenomenon of having more than one language used in a certain territory or region. Multilingual societies are described as linguistically diverse.

Log-likelihood is a mathematical function that is used to derive the maximum **likelihood** estimator of a certain parameter. This allows us to conclude the extent to which the reported results are caused by the studied variable.

Loi Toubon (law 94-665 of 4 August 1994) is a law on French language use in official government publications, in all advertisements, in all workplaces, in commercial contracts, in all government-financed schools, and some other contexts.

Mixed methods research design is a research design that combines quantitative and qualitative research methods to compensate for the shortcoming of each method.

Psycholinguistics is a field that “deals mainly with language understanding, production, and acquisition. It is a part of cognitive science that comprises psychology, linguistics, anthropology, neuroscience, and computer science” (K. Balamurugan & S. Thirunavukkarasu, 2018, p.110)

Neurolinguistics is a field of research that takes interest in studying language and its manifestation in the human brain. Neurolinguists investigate how, why, and where our brains store linguistic content and how it is retrieved and understood when we speak, read, or write. This field also looks into neural processes that occur in first/second language acquisition, as well as speech disorders that may occur as a result of trauma.

Pragmatic effect refers to an effect that is highly affected by the variable of context and can vary from one individual to another based on various factors such as age, educational background,

social class, and so on.

Sociolinguistic context refers to the context of a certain social setting. That is, the spoken languages, the type of individuals that inhabit the territory or the region, their age, social class, and so on. Setting the sociolinguistic context gives a strong theoretical background to studies in the field of applied linguistics.

Symbolic function of a linguistic landscape refers to the pragmatic and ideological effect that linguistic items create in an individual's consciousness.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: consent form

Formulaire de consentement

Je soussigné(e), _____, accepte de participer à un entretien individuel, réalisé par M./Mme. _____, chercheur(e) au sein de l'Université de Pau et des Pays de l'Adour afin de faire progresser notre recherche (ci-après, « l'Etude »). Ce faisant, J'autorise M./Mme. _____, en qualité de chercheur(e) à l'Université de Pau et des Pays de l'Adour,

- À collecter et utiliser les informations à caractère personnel que je pourrais donner lors de l'entretien et portant exclusivement sur le thème de l'Etude,
- À effectuer un enregistrement audio de cet entretien et à l'exploiter à des fins de recherche exclusivement dans le cadre de l'Etude,
- À effectuer, le cas échéant, un traitement des données sensibles au sens de l'Article 8 de la Loi informatique et libertés du 6 Janvier 1978 modifiée.

Je déclare être informé(e) que

- Ces informations ne seront pas utilisées à d'autres fins que la recherche,
- Toutes les informations concernant mon identité, y compris les données dites sensibles au sens de la Loi n°78-17 du 6 Janvier 1978 modifiée, recueillies au cours des entretiens, seront pseudonymisées dès la fin de l'entretien. En particulier, le nom n'apparaîtra jamais et le prénom sera modifié. Seul(e) le chercheur ou la chercheuse qui effectue la passation de l'entretien connaîtra mon identité,
- De la même façon, tous les prénoms qui seraient éventuellement cités au cours de l'entretien seront également modifiés,
- Les seuls destinataires des données recueillies seront le ou les chercheur(e)s impliqué(e)s dans l'enquête.
- A compter de la fin de l'enquête, les données seront conservées pendant un an,
- Toutes ces informations seront traitées conformément aux dispositions de la Loi n°78-17 du 6 janvier 1978 sur l'informatique, les fichiers et les libertés et ne seront cédées à aucun autre tiers,
- Je peux à tout moment, au cours de l'Etude, demander à M./Mme. _____ la communication des informations me concernant et les faire rectifier le cas échéant,
- Pendant ce même délai, je peux exercer un droit de retrait de l'Etude,
- Pour ces demandes je peux m'adresser au chercheur(e) qui a effectué la passation de l'entretien à l'adresse mail suivante : _____@_____. En cas de demande d'opposition, il ou elle se réserve le droit de retirer et effacer toutes les données collectées au cours de l'entretien et m'en informera,

Fait à _____, le _____ en deux exemplaires originaux, dont l'un m'a été remis.

Signature:

Appendix B: Questionnaire



Ce questionnaire fait partie d'un projet de recherche de master 2. Nous vous serions reconnaissants de répondre aux questions suivantes. Vos réponses resteront confidentielles. Merci de votre collaboration.

Nom et prénom:.....

- **Informations démographiques**

Sexe:

- ☐ Homme
- ☐ Femme
- ☐ Autre

Age:

- ☐ <18
- ☐ 18-30
- ☐ 30-40
- ☐ 40-50
- ☐ 50-60
- ☐ >60

- **Est-ce que la langue française est votre langue maternelle (première langue acquise)?**

- ☐ Oui
- ☐ Non. Veuillez préciser

- **Connaissez-vous les publicités que vous venez de regarder ?**

- ☐ Oui
- ☐ Non

- **Vous souvenez-vous d'un mot, d'une expression ou d'une phrase des paroles de la musique jouée dans ces publicités ?**

- ☐ Oui. Veuillez le/les noter
- ☐ Non

Appendix C

Link to the Excel document for the corpus data:

<https://docs.google.com/spreadsheets/d/1dMXOYKtQFCY1OvxBhr79PaAH5jJFP6KzHDYB1KwezN8/edit?usp=sharing>

MEMOIRE DE MASTER

UNIVERSITE DE PAU ET DES PAYS DE L'ADOUR

COLLEGE SCIENCES SOCIALES ET HUMANITES

ALTER (Art/Langages : Transitions & Relations)

RESUME

La présente étude vise à investiguer le paysage sonore et linguistique des publicités télévisuelles françaises. L'exploration de ces deux variables révèle le statut sociolinguistique de l'anglais en France. En nous appuyant sur les données recueillies dans notre étude (Taouss, 2021), nous avons constitué deux corpus de 115 de publicités télévisées: un pour le paysage sonore linguistique qui contient la transcription de tous les items linguistiques parlés et un autre corpus pour la langue écrite des publicités télévisées. Chaque corpus a été traité via AntConc 3.5.9, un outil d'analyse de corpus multi-plateforme et polyvalent. Ce mémoire de recherche vise à répondre à trois questions de recherche. Premièrement, pour déterminer la part de l'anglais dans les publicités télévisées en français (le paysage sonore linguistique vs le paysage linguistique), nous avons utilisé des statistiques inférentielles et descriptives, et nous avons présenté les résultats sous forme de tableaux et de camemberts à des fins de clarté et de simplicité. Nos statistiques inférentielles montrent qu'il existe une différence statistiquement significative entre le paysage sonore linguistique et le paysage en termes de représentation de la langue anglaise: l'anglais est plus dominant dans le paysage linguistique. Deuxièmement, pour découvrir les caractéristiques et les modèles de l'anglais utilisés dans le paysage sonore et le paysage linguistique des publicités télévisées, nous avons analysé nos corpus qui ont montré que (i) les modèles dans lesquels l'anglais est utilisé sont les marques, les slogans, les descriptions de produits, et (ii) que leur pourcentage d'utilisation diffère selon le support de communication (écrit, parlé). Troisièmement, nous réfléchissons au statut sociolinguistique de l'anglais en France à travers la combinaison de nos résultats quantitatifs et de documents officiels tels que les lois (loi Toubon, loi Liotard), les rapports annuels du CSA (Conseil Supérieur de l'Audiovisuel) et les rapports de l'Académie française qui représentent le traitement descendant. Notre étude a révélé que l'anglais a un statut sociolinguistique bas en France, sa présence dans les publicités télévisées est principalement due à la réglementation.

Mots clés: Paysage sonore linguistique, paysage linguistique, lois (Loi Toubon, Loi Liotard), rapports annuels du CSA (Conseil Supérieur de l'Audiovisuel), Académie Française.