

Republic of Iraq
Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research
University of Kerbala
College of Education for Humanities
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**A Socio-Pragmatic Study of Persuasive Strategies in
Selected Names of Shops in Karbala City**

A Thesis

**Submitted to the Council of the College of Education for Humanities/
University of Kerbala in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the
Degree of Master of Arts in English Language /Linguistics**

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2024 A.D.

1446 A.H.

بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ

الَّذِينَ يَسْتَمِعُونَ الْقَوْلَ فَيَتَّبِعُونَ أَحْسَنَهُ أُولَئِكَ الَّذِينَ هَدَاهُمُ اللَّهُ وَأُولَئِكَ
هُمْ أُولُو الْأَلْبَابِ

صدق الله العلي العظيم

سورة الزمر الآية (18)

**In the name of Allah, Most Gracious, Most
Merciful**

**(Who listen to the word and follow the best thereof. it is
they whom Allah Has guided, and it is they who are men of
understanding).**

God Almighty Has spoken the truth

Surah Al-Zamer, verse (18)

(Ali, 39, p.676)

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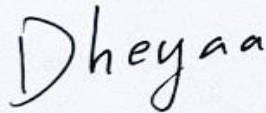


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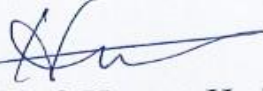
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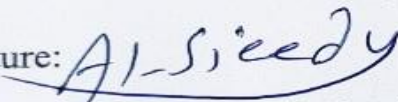
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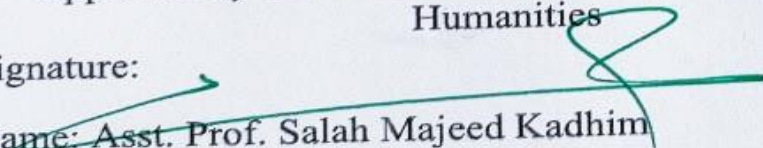
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Dedication

This work is dedicated to:

My family, who supported me, especially my father and my mother

*My friends who encouraged me, especially my best friend Hiba
Muslim.*

Acknowledgements

All praise be to Allah for inspiring me with patience to accomplish this work with His blessing and mercy.

A sincere appreciation go to my supervisor, Prof. Hussien Musa Kadhim Al-Nasrawi (Ph.D.), for his support, and valuable advice.

My special thanks and praise go to Dr. Ahssan . from Kerbala University for his assistance.

My deep gratitude and respect are due to all the staff members of the English Department at Kerbala University who taught me in the M.A. courses, especially, Prof. Muayyed Omran Chiad, for his kindness and valuable advice.

Abstract

The present study seeks to investigate and analyse persuasive strategies used in naming shops in Karbala City. The study attempts to make people more aware of these strategies since persuasive strategies nowadays are one of the necessities in the marketing field. For the best of the researcher's view point, no other study has investigated persuasive strategies used in shop names, especially from a sociopragmatic perspective, so the present study endeavours to fill this gap and aims to uncover the main strategies used in shop names for persuasion. By focusing on the aim, the study hypothesises that monolingual English shop names are used to convince customers that the products have modernity, value, and foreign quality, and this usage is affected by the shop owners' level of education and the gender of the shops. Regarding other strategies, it hypothesises that ethos and pathos are employed in shop names as persuasive strategies; assertive and directive speech acts are used in shop names as persuasive speech acts; finally, off-record and bald-on record politeness strategies are utilised in shop names for persuasion. To achieve the aim of this study, an eclectic model of analysis is adopted for analysing the data. The model comprises Searle's (1969) speech acts, Lucas's (2009) persuasive strategies, Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness strategies, and selected social variables. The current study is limited to 40 shop names written in English selected from the centre of Karbala City, which is chosen as a sample for this study. The participants' sample includes 40 shop owners from the city center. The results of the qualitative and quantitative analysis of the gathered data show that monolingual English usage in shop names implies certain persuasive purposes, and the variables (education, gender) have a significant effect on this usage. Regarding other persuasive strategies, pathos has a high level of occurrence in shop names, while ethos rarely occurs. The analysis also indicates that assertives are the most frequent speech acts used in shop names,

while directives have a low level of occurrence. Similarly, off-records are used with a high level of frequency in comparison with bald on record, since shop owners prefer to convince customers indirectly and avoid imposing upon their buying decisions.

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List of Abbreviations

Abbreviations	The Concept
FATS	Face threatening acts
LL	Lingustic landscape
MMR	Mixed method research
SL	Second language

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Chapter One

Introduction

1.1 Preliminary Remarks

This chapter presents the problem of the current study by identifying the questions, the aims, the hypotheses, the procedures, the limits, and the value of the study.

1.2 The Problem

Shop owners utilise persuasive strategies in naming shops to attract customers. Although Arabic is the native language of Iraq, there is a noticeable tendency towards the use of English in naming shops. So, this study investigates the persuasive purposes behind the use of English language in naming shops in Karbala City and what types of speech acts, persuasive appeals, and politeness strategies used in naming shops to modify the customer's attitudes and desires. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, investigating persuasive strategies in naming shops is rare in the Middle East, especially in Iraq, so this study will fill this gap and add to the literature of the Iraqi context.

1.3 The Questions

To achieve the aims of the study, it tries to answer the following questions:

1-To what extent can English usage in shop names be affected by social variables and intended for persuasive purposes?

2-What persuasive strategies are used in naming shops?

3-What are the categories of speech acts used in naming shops to perform persuasive strategies?

4-What are the types of politeness strategies used for persuasion?

1.4 The Aims

The current study aims at:

- 1- Investigating the social variables that affect the use of English in naming shops and the persuasive purposes behind this usage.
- 2- Determining persuasive strategies that are used in naming shops to attract customers.
- 3- Identifying speech acts that are used in naming shops for persuasion.
- 4- Figuring out the types of politeness strategies used for persuasion.

1.5 The Hypotheses

In terms of the questions and the aims of the study, it is hypothesised that:

- 1-The use of monolingual English names depends on the shop owners' level of education and the gender of the shops and is intended to persuade customers that the products are modern, valuable, and of foreign quality.
- 2- Ethos and pathos are used in naming shops as persuasive strategies.
- 3- Various speech acts such as assertive and directive are used in shop naming to perform persuasive acts.
- 4-Off-record and baldly on-record politeness strategies are used for persuasion.

1.6 The Procedures

In order to achieve the aims of this study and verify or refuse its hypotheses, the procedures below will be followed:

- 1-Reviewing the relevant literature on sociopragmatics, persuasive strategies, and other related topics.

2-Collecting the data from different areas within the centre of Karbala City. Data consists of selected names of shops. These shops differ in their types, goods, and services.

3-The current study uses a sociolinguistic questionnaire that consists of questions about the reasons behind the use of English language in writing the names of shops by the shop owners.

4-Selecting the data for analysis qualitatively and quantitatively.

5-Adopting appropriate models for analysis ,such as Searle's (1969) model for analysing speech acts, Luca's(2009) model for investigating persuasive strategies, and Brown and Levinson's (1987) model for investigating politeness strategies, in addition, proposing a model for analysing the social variables.

6- Analysing the data in terms of the eclectic model, conducting statistical analysis, then tabulating the results and drawing conclusions.

1.7 The Limits

The current study is limited to both place and time. This study involves only 40 names of shops that are written in English. The sample for the study is collected from different areas in the centre of Karbala City.

1.8 The Value

This study attracts the attention of customers, shop owners and business makers by investigating persuasive strategies that are used in naming shops to affect customers' attitudes, values, and desires. so this study will make them aware of these persuasive strategies. Also, this study will be valuable for researchers or students interested in socio- pragmatic studies.

Chapter Two

Literature Review

2.0 Preliminary Remarks

This chapter presents a theoretical background for the current study. It mainly reviews socio-pragmatics, sociolinguistics, pragmatics, and persuasion as the core of this chapter. Further, it identifies the previous studies that are related to the current study.

2.1 Sociolinguistics

Sociolinguistics can be broken down into the two words "socio," which refers to society, and "linguistics," which is the systematic study of language. Since this term focuses on how specific persons or groups of people use language, it can be described as the study of the link between language and society (Van Herk, 2012). For a complete comprehension of human language, social interaction must be taken into account (Trudgil, 2003).

Swann et al. pointed out the importance of linguistics, with an emphasis on how language and social life interact (Swann, Deumert, Lillis, & Mesthrie, 2004). This simply means that society and language function as two sides of the same coin. Having a society is necessary for language to exist.

The most precise description of modern sociolinguistics is the study of language in social contexts and the study of social life through linguistics. It is a multidisciplinary field since it blends linguistics and sociology. Though sociolinguistics has grown most rapidly since the late 1960s, the study of language in relation to society is not a 1960s discovery; rather, it encompasses both the more general exploration of the connections between word meaning and culture as well as the study of dialects (Malmakjar, 2002).

Sociology and linguistics could be merged to study language from a social perspective. It has prompted some scholars to define the boundaries between sociolinguistics and sociology. Some argue that the term "sociology of language" would be more appropriate for sociolinguistics (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, p. 494).

Understanding social structure may be improved through studying language. For example, the researcher can find ways to describe various social structures using certain linguistic features. Sociolinguistics studies the relationships between language and society in order to gain a better knowledge of language structure and how languages function in communication (Wardhaugh & Fuller, 2015).

Society and community require a group of individuals. They interact with each other. They have a membership consciousness based on common goals, and they behave in a predictable and organised manner. When individuals can work together to achieve a shared goal and have a common geography, culture, and way of life, they are referred to as a community (Trudgill, 2000).

It is acknowledged that not all residents of towns and cities, businesses, schools, and families are identified as societies; rather, they are recognised as communities that are merely a part of a wider social system. Accordingly, a society is any group of people who live together for a long time, share a common place, practice the same culture, and conduct most of their daily business as a unit (Wardhaugh & Fuller, 2015).

What is known as social stratification may be present in a society where particular groups of people live. According to Malmakjar (2002), social stratification is the term used to describe any hierarchical organisation within a community (Malmakjar, 2002).

2.2 Language and Society

Language and social interactions are mutually dependent; social interactions shape language, and vice versa. One can investigate language use in connection to the objectives of interactions and cultural background.

Perhaps language is what most obviously separates humans from animals, but Kabera (2009) listed many other ways that men differ from animals, including being "featherless bipeds," toolmakers, and the only creatures with souls.

He continues, arguing that while animals do not vocally express themselves as humans do, they do so through sounds that have some similar purposes, such as cries, hoots, bleats, and coos. They make calls to newborns, cry out in distress, warn of hazards, and call out to attract mates (Kabera, 2009). These animal sounds are more like human cries, screams, sighs, and grunts than they are like human language.

By itself, language has a collection of sounds that have no inherent meaning and is capable of constructing an endless variety of themes. Better speakers probably had larger brains on average, which may explain why the human brain has doubled in size over the course of the last million or so years, according to Burling (1970).

2.3 Naming

Giving a shop or person a name that would serve as a referent may seem to be a linguistic issue, but it is actually regarded as a philosophical one. Dobric (2010) claimed in her paper that early linguists classified proper nouns as having identities but being meaningless, while general nouns were classified as meaningful units. That led to the emergence of numerous philosophical theories about naming, such as the sense-based theory presented by philosopher Gottlob

Frege, who defines proper names as linguistic expressions that may have a single referent but multiple meanings (Jamil, 2010).

Another concept is Bertrand Russell's descriptive theory, which links the proper name to a well-known description. Russell believes that proper names have a referent but have no meaning (Dobric, 2010). Palumbo and Herbig (2000) defined brand name as "a trademark or a distinctive name of a product or manufacturer. It is a name, term, sign, symbol, design, or any combination of these used to identify a seller's goods and services."(p. 120).

2.3.1 Sociolinguistic Variables Implied in The Language of Shop Names

Variations in language are inevitable and can be caused by many variables, including time, space, social characteristics, politics, economics, ideology, and educational attainment. Several studies have analysed and linked regional and social factors to get comprehensive explanations for the language choice found in store signage. Gumperz (1968, as cited in Hazen, 2011) stated that there is an unbreakable connected tie between these two factors, finding that social features are ingrained in each geographic area and hence cannot be separated.

2.3.1.1 Regional Variable

Both overt and covert regional influences may be present in store names. That is to say, the location of stores may have an impact on how customers view the quality and services they offer. For example, shops in rural and distant places typically use the local language, which is typically the community's native tongue, maintaining the common perception of shops. On the other hand, stores in urban and city centres typically use foreign languages, especially English, in their signage. This is because it is assumed that using these

languages draws in high-class customers and reflects the high quality of the goods and services these stores provide, thus increasing their appeal. (Hussein et al., 2015).

2.3.1.2 Social Variables

One way to see naming is as a sociolinguistic process that uses language to connect people in a society. This procedure allows individuals or things to be recognised and differentiated within their communities (Hussein et al., 2015).

In light of this, name functions as a "symbolic system of identification" (p. 155). However, when it comes to naming, Arabs are said to be more exact and aware of the social, psychological, cultural, and linguistic aspects. Alternately, store names are said to reflect a person's values and worldview (Abedel-Jawad, 1986, as cited in Hussein et al., 2015).

According to Hussein (1997), a name is a reflection of social significance and is shaped by social views and values (as cited in Hussein et al., 2015).

Thus, when it comes to store naming, a number of social variables are anticipated to impact the language and style of shop signs. Age, social class, educational attainment, and economic status are the most important demographic determinants. Hussein et al. (2015) noted in this issue that social characteristics such as the socioeconomic status and level of education of customers have an impact on the use of foreign names on store signs.

Nonetheless, social variables influence not just how consumers feel about particular store names but also how they act. Accordingly, individual characteristics like age, gender, education, motivation, personality, and lifestyle, as well as contextual elements like culture, social status, and family, can influence customers' purchasing decisions (Blackwell, Miniard, and Engel, 2006, as cited in Sata, 2013).

2.4 Language Economy in Shop Names

Although the study of the linguistic landscape is a relatively recent development, the idea of language economy has existed for much longer. This term was known for a very long time, as may be seen by going back in time.

Language economy is viewed as a soft instrument that aims to produce outstanding results. In this regard, Mohsin and Hameed (2018) highlighted the point that language economy can save people time and energy; as a result, one should choose the language that offers the greatest commercial potential for the business he owns.

In addition, Thongtong (2016) stressed the significance of language economy by asserting that "the choice of language has economic motivations and consequences" and that, as a result, "using English as a global language in shop signs serves as an economic weapon in the interest of economic agendas" (p. 76). According to Alfaifi (2015), utilising English is a tactic to stay relevant in the global economy instead of being left behind by other countries.

The impact of the economic domain on the LL values was a major focus of Cenoz and Gorter's (2006) study because of its significant symbolic value. According to Phillipson (2003, as cited in Cenoz & Gorter, 2006), LL marked with English signs can indicate identities that are more suitable for people in higher positions.

2.4.1 Lingua Franca

Since Lingua Franca is not spoken by anyone as a first language, it is called an auxiliary language. The French tongue or language is what this Italian word refers to (Ghim & Chew, 2009).

People whose first language is not English use it as a communication tool in daily discourse. The term "lingua franca" was first used in the Middle Ages to

refer to a French and Italian pidgin that traders and crusaders had formed in the eastern Mediterranean, according to Brown and Miller (2013, p. 267).

The term "lingua franca" currently describes any language used to communicate amongst speakers of different languages. One example of a lingua franca utilised by speakers of different first languages is English. Today, a wide range of situations and professions use English as the universal language, including international trade, air traffic control, and Olympic sports (Wheeler, 1999, pp. 92-3).

2.4.1.1 English Globalization

The French dominated administration and education in England from the eleventh to the fourteenth centuries. From the fourteenth century forward, English began to replace French. Many opponents claimed that because of its regional variations and the fact that its standard form hadn't yet been established, English wasn't the best language. However, beginning in the fourteenth century, many authors chose to use English as their primary language instead of the fashionable French and Italian, as well as the classical languages of Greek and Latin (Mesthrie, Swann, Deumert, & Leap, 2009).

According to Crystal (2003), the geographic and historical scope of English as well as the effects of socio-cultural factors are the two key reasons why it has emerged as the dominant and universal language. Currently, one of the most significant and prominent languages in the world is English. The fact that roughly 25% of the world population can speak English was brought up by Crystal in this context (Crystal, 2003).

To put it another way, English has always suited the contemporary sciences, no matter what their fields were, and English people have occupied various nations and regions throughout history (Crystal, 2003).

The era of digital technology and social media began at the beginning of the twenty-first century, and English was the language preferred for online communication among speakers all over the world (Darvin, 2016). With millions of SL English learners, a billion fluent speakers, 385 million native speakers, and 565 million internet users, nearly 50% demonstrated the dominance of English over other languages (Neeley, 2012).

2.4.1.1.1 Naming Shops and Tourism over World

A well-documented form of people flow that significantly influences the usage of English is tourism, according to Moulin and Campos (2017). Additionally, it was stated that "money talks very loudly in tourism," meaning that store signs are typically written in English in all popular tourist destinations worldwide (Crystal 2003, p. 104).

It's been observed that English has been added to several areas of daily life, including credit cards, restaurant menus, public announcements, store signage, street signs, and public signs, in an effort to draw in more visitors and business (Rață et al. 2012).

The usage of English in signage was also underlined as a creative marketing tactic to draw in both domestic and foreign visitors, since it can connect with the city mass customer due to globalisation (Selvi, 2007).

2.5 Shop Naming from a Sociolinguistic Perspective

The language that shop owners use to name their shops may inadvertently allude to specific social, cultural, political, or economic goals within a given community. Any study of language in linguistics is difficult to analyse in isolation from its context. In contrast to Chomsky's social view of linguistics, in which he separated language from these other factors, linguistic studies should

be analysed from a social, cultural, political, and economic perspective (Wardhaugh, 2006).

In terms of the social importance of language, sociolinguistics is the only field that can clearly demonstrate the connection between the language used in shop signs and society. The term "sociolinguistics" was given many definitions in Wardhaugh's book *"An Introduction to Sociolinguistics"* (2006), such as "micro-sociolinguistics," which was defined as the study of the interaction between society and language, with a focus on the language itself and how it is used in society.

He also highlighted Coulmas' (1997) description of sociolinguistics as micro-sociolinguistics, which looks at how social structures affect language use and how social variables like socioeconomic status, age, gender, etc. may lead to language variations (as cited in Wardhaugh, 2006).

The interrelationship of language and society was also covered by Blommaert (2010, as cited in Wardhaugh, 2006). He highlighted Hymes' theory, according to which the use of linguistic items is determined by considerations of social, political, cultural, and historical nature, all of which have an impact on the strategies of naming used in naming shops.

2.6 Pragmatics

Pragmatics is the relationship between signs and language users who understand the signs (Morris, 1938). According to Hadiyanti (2020, as cited in Alkhaldi et al., 2023), signs are typically used to promote a business, tell potential customers about it and transmit information about it.

The use of language in the context of communication is known as pragmatics (Koike, 1996). The study of pragmatics also looks at how language is employed in particular ways. According to Yule (1996), the four elements of

pragmatics are the speakers' meaning, the statement of relative distance, the contextual meaning, and the implied meaning that is present but not explicitly stated.

Pragmatics According to Levinson, studying language from a practical perspective entails attempting to clarify the aspects of linguistic form by designating nonlinguistic forces and causes (Levinson, 1983). Although Yule (1996) asserted that it entails comprehending the fundamental meaning of the words being presented, as well as how what is said will be understood (Yule,1996). The speaker's intended meaning can be determined by recognising the speaker's identity and the context of spoken utterance (Birner, 2012).

Many concepts are covered in the study of pragmatics in order to help people understand what they read and hear. Studying pragmatics encompasses a number of topics, including deictic, implicative, reference, entailment, speech act, and others. One of those that takes some cues from the situation is deictic. Using linguistic forms to help the listener or reader identify something is known as a reference. A logical conclusion drawn from the assertions made in the utterance is known as an entailment. Speech acts are deeds carried out by utterances that the listener recognises. The researcher concentrates on speech acts among those research topics.

Mey (1993) asserted that the societal context in which people use language determines pragmatics. This demonstrates how social factors influence how people use language because people or language users modify their speech patterns based on the social context in which they find themselves.

2.6.1 Speech Act Theory

The theory in the field of pragmatics is called speech act theory. Communication involves expressing a particular attitude, and the speech act being used reflects the attitude being stated.

According to Pishghadam and Rasouli (2011), speech acts are verbal activities, as Austin (1962) emphasised. Speech acts are the primary components of pragmatics. Speech act theory is interested in the uses and functions of language. According to Austin (1962), the language of speech is viewed as a performative of many actions rather than just a world description.

A theory for examining the function of utterances in connection to the behaviour between the speaker and hearer in interpersonal communication is known as the Speech Act theory (Austin, 1962). For Austin and many of his followers, a speech act is primarily stated by a speech act verb. Speech act theories focus on the speaker's use of language and how the listener interprets what the speaker is saying.

Speech acts, according to Yule (1996), are actions that a speaker performs along with an utterance. According to Yule, we can infer the kinds of activities a speaker expects us to do from their various utterances, such as when they make a request, welcome, make a promise, and so on. According to Lyons (1977), a speech act is an act that is performed while saying something. The speech act theory is viewed as a technique for utterance analysis that connects grammatical forms and language functions (Fillmore, 1981).

Many speech acts, including those of congratulations, persuasion, apology, and so forth, have been studied. By examining how language is viewed as a form of action, Austin (1962) was the first to establish the meaning of speech acts.

According to Austin (1975), a variety of utterances can produce a new psychological and social reality. As a result, he categorised these utterances into three categories: A locutionary act is when a speaker makes an utterance with a specified meaning. For instance, "leave" or "I just made some cake". In this

case, speech acts are limited to language expression without comprehension of meaning.

The second category is illocutionary acts, which include saying something with a specific intention. For instance, an offer, a request, a proposal, or an order. The illocutionary act enables individuals to act rather than merely speak (Austin, 1975).

The last category, perlocutionary acts, concerns how the speaker's utterances impact the listener. In other words, attempting to alter one's perspective (Austin, 1975).

2.6.1.1 The Classification of Speech Acts

Searle developed the Speech Act Theory in 1969. According to Searle (1979), the speech act is regarded as the fundamental building block of language communication. He put the emphasis on a psychological interpretation that makes reference to intentions, beliefs, and values.

There are five categories of speech acts, according to Searle: assertive, commissive, directive, expressive, and declarative.

1-Assertive speech acts: The speaker clarifies the situation by expressing the truth using verbs like "believe," "affirm," "report," "deny," and "conclude" (Searle & Vanderveken, 1985). This is known as an assertive speech act or representative act. These acts commit the hearer to a proposition: "It is to present the proposition as representing a state of affairs in the world" (Searle, 1999,p.148). As a result, they fit "word to world." Definitions, descriptions, claims, statements, and other forms of assertive speech acts may be true or untrue, depending on how well they fit into the context(Searle, 1999,p.148).

2-Directive speech acts: According to Huntley (1984), a directive act can be used to make requests, orders, commands, permissions, exhortations, advice, threats, and warnings.

According to Searle (1979), directive acts are aimed at having an impact on the hearer's behaviour. For instance, "I'm hungry; give me a piece of cake, please!".

This sentence implies that the addresser wants someone else to do something for him. The illocutionary act of directives is to try to influence the hearer's behaviour in a way that his actions are consistent with the propositional content of directive (Searle,1999).

3- Commissive speech acts: Commissive speech acts, according to Yule (1996), are the kinds of speech acts that speakers use to promise to take certain actions in the future. In essence, they convey the speaker's intentions through warnings, denials, promises, and threats, such as "I will be present".

Since the act commits one to perform as the utterance recommends, the direction of fit with commissives is a word to world fit. Every commissive statement fundamentally serves as "an expression of an intention to do something"(Searle,1999, p.149).

4-Declarative speech acts: It is the kind of speech act that uses words and utterances to try to change the world. A declaration illocutionary point, or force, is "to bring about a change in the world by representing it as having been changed"(Searle,1999,p.150). That is to say, by effectively declaring that one has established a certain state of affairs, one has in fact created that state of affairs. Because one can modify the world and accomplish a world-to-word direction of fit by describing it as having been changed, declarations have the unique situation of having a dual direction of fit between the world and the words used (Searle,1999).

It is the declarative feature of illocutionary utterances that permits such things as a marriage to be a formal proclamation of wedlock, because essentially, a declaration made under all the right circumstances produces a state of affairs in the natural world that did not exist before.

5-Expressive speech acts: It is described as an act that expresses the speaker's feelings. The emotional expressions include like, dislike, grief, and joy. For example, congratulations, condolences, thanks, apologies, and other expressive speech acts are actions that can only be carried out by expressing one's emotions. When making an expressive statement, the propositional content often has the null direction of fit since the truth of propositional content is simply taken to be true (Searle, 1999).

2.6.1.2 Felicity Conditions

A major contribution to the theory of speech acts with regard to the Felicity Conditions is made by Searle (1969). According to Searle, a set of conditions for carrying out a specific act is known as felicity conditions. The act will be successfully carried out if all of these conditions are met. He categorised the felicity conditions into four groups:

1. Propositional Content Conditions:

These conditions determine the expression that can be uttered in order to carry out the illocutionary act. As an illustration, every directive speech act aims to persuade the hearer to do or not do something.

2. Preparatory Conditions:

They refer to the intention and knowledge of the speaker and the hearer. In the performance of any illocutionary act, the speaker implies that the preparatory conditions of the act are satisfied. For instance, a speaker who advises someone

against doing something presupposes that the hearer would suffer from his actions in the future.

3. Sincerity Conditions:

They convey to us the speaker's beliefs, intentions, and desires when performing the act. Although one cannot greet someone insincerely, one can state or make a commitment insincerely.

4. Essential Conditions:

They are the constitutive rules that identify the kind of illocutionary act. For instance, when the speakers make a promise, they want the listener to understand that they intend for their words to count as a promise, etc.

2.6.2 Politeness

Politeness and persuasion are linked concepts. The idea that politeness is the linguistic representation of social bonds implies the understanding that social relationships cannot exist without communication being inside and through them. Considering that persuasion is a communication phenomenon like any other, it follows that a speaker will always be relating to others while attempting to persuade them (Carl & Duck, 2004; Duck, 1998).

The majority of people understand exactly what is meant when someone acts politely. Most of the time, they do so by citing examples of polite behaviour. People who respect their superiors, are always willing to assist, speak very well, use courteous speech, etc. are examples of people who behave politely. In polite communication, one can use expressions such as "please," "sorry," "thank you," or "madam"; alternatively, one can use indirect speech or address someone with deference, such as "sir" or "madam." (Brown and Levinson, 1987).

In everyday conversations, it is not uncommon to hear remarks on how lovely or awful someone's manners are, or even that some behaviours are better than others, etc. What are the linguistic criteria used to judge if something is polite or not? Over the past 20 years, several hypotheses have addressed this subject. Numerous empirical studies, such as Lakoff's Theory (1975), Leech's Politeness Principle Theory (1983), and Brown and Levinson's Theory (1987), have produced models of linguistic politeness. Scholars of linguistics have offered several definitions of politeness. A particular number of definitions are merely linguistic, whereas others contain social or sociocognitive foundations. According to Lakoff (1975), politeness is a social construct that was created to lessen interpersonal conflict. According to Leech (1983, p. 19), being polite is a form of "strategic conflict avoidance," which may be determined by how much effort is made to stay out of a dispute situation.

Brown and Levinson (1987) proposed the linguistic model of politeness. According to their definition, being polite involves "Forms of behaviour used to maintain and develop communication between potentially aggressive partners" (p. 61). They contend that in order to achieve language politeness and reduce threats, both positive and negative tactics are used.

Politeness, based on pragmatics, describes how people understand one another's meanings. In an attempt to be respectful, the addresser offers options, avoids forcing anything on the other person, and seeks to make the other person feel good (Lakoff, 1973; Leech, 1983).

Despite years of extensive research on politeness as a language phenomenon, there are still strong opinions about the nature of this confusing concept. Researchers have offered different theories about it. Some focus on conversational policies and maxims (Leech, 1983; Fraser, 1990), while others attribute it to face sensitivities (Brown and Levinson, 1987) or the distinction

between socially acceptable, marked, and unmarked behaviour. Still others rely on affective communication or cultural specificity features.

One approach to reducing conflict in discourse is to be polite; this reduces the potential that there will be a dispute at all as well as the potential that a disagreement will be seen as a threat (Lakoff, 1989).

The emphasis on the social environment is part of the socio-cultural perspective on politeness. More precisely, the focus is on social norms and the building of participation. Fraser sums up this perspective on politeness in relation to social norms well (Fraser, 1990).

In brief, the socio-cultural perspective holds that every community has a predetermined set of social norms, which include more or less explicit laws that specify acceptable behaviour, a certain situation, or a way of thinking within that situation. Positive analysis (politeness) arises when behaviour conforms to the standard, while negative analysis (impoliteness = rudeness) arises when behaviour deviates from the norm (Fraser, 1990).

2.7 Sociopragmatics

An approach to examining language and speech is known as sociopragmatics (Angelmüller, Maingueneau, & Wodak, 2014). One of the earliest linguists to acknowledge sociopragmatics as a prominent subfield of general pragmatics was Leech (1983). General pragmatics, according to him, is "the general conditions of the communicative use of language". He divided it into two parts: Pragmalinguistics and Sociopragmatics. The former refers to the linguistic component of pragmatics, or pragmatics-grammar interaction, which consists of "the particular resources that a given language provides for conveying particular illocutions." The latter concerns the "sociological interface of pragmatics," or the interaction of pragmatics and sociology or, to put it another way, Sociopragmatics is mainly interested in the interactions between

discourse and certain "local conditions on language use" including socioeconomic classes, gender, and power (pp. 1-10).

The distinction between sociopragmatics and pragmalinguistics is further explained by some linguists. According to Richards and Schmidt (2002), pragmalinguistics is the connection between linguistics and pragmatics and focuses on the linguistic strategies used to accomplish pragmatic goals, including determining how to express a compliment in a particular language. The link between social factors and pragmatics, in contrast, is the focus of sociopragmatics. To introduce, for instance, the circumstances and methods in language that can be utilised to produce compliments, such as "the social relationship between speaker and hearer" (p. 411). Similarly, Stranzy (2005) demonstrated that pragmalinguistics exploits "the structural resources" that a language provides in order to communicate particular targets. Language use is the focus of sociopragmatics, as it deals with language use and social situations that determine resource choice(pp. 870–872).

Sociopragmatics may intersect with other socially-oriented areas like critical discourse analysis and sociolinguistics because of its emphasis on how contextual conditions shape and produce the norms that speakers exploit (Angermuller et al., 2014).

According to Aijmer and Andersen (2012), sociopragmatics includes several "societal perspective studies to pragmatics," including variational pragmatics, interactional sociolinguistics, critical discourse analysis, and other related fields (pp. 2–3).

2.8 Persuasion

The ability to influence other people's attitudes, ideas, or behaviours is known as persuasion (Reardon, 1981). Persuasion is an interactive process between the persuadee and the persuader, according to O'Donnell and Kable

(1982). They described persuasion as a continuous, complex, and interactive process in which the connection between the sender and the receiver is mediated by verbal, nonverbal, and symbols. The goal of a persuader is to convince someone to alter their behaviour or attitude (O'Donnell & Kable, 1982).

All aspects of life involve persuasion, including social interactions, politics, and the economy. According to Perloff's definition of persuasion, it is a form of communication in which the speaker uses language to influence the listener's behaviour and opinions in a setting free from judgment (Perloff, 2017).

Instead of producers, Fotheringham (1966) concentrated on receivers. According to his definition, the persuasive act is the process of generating effects in readers or listeners that are relevant to the source's stated objectives and come about as a result of a process in which messages play a significant role in determining those effects (Fotheringham, 1966).

According to Levine's theory of persuasion, the listener's perspectives and ideas would have stayed unchanged without the engagement because of the psychological effect the debater has on them (Levine, 2006).

Dillard and Pfau further expand the definition of persuasion by stating that the speaker must intentionally deploy symbols or viewpoints to arouse the emotions of the target group in order to increase their response to the argument being made (Dillard and Pfau, 2002).

2.8.1 Persuasion and Marketing

Marketing can be characterised as the set of activities used by marketers to persuade consumers to buy goods or services. Marketing is "the sum of activities involved in directing the flow of goods and services from producers to consumers," (Kotler, Hibbard, and Grayson, 2019, p.2). The public knows it as

"presenting, advertising, and selling a company products or services" (p.3) in the most effective manner.

McCarthy claimed that marketing is comprised of just four components, also referred to as the marketing mix or the 4Ps: product, price, place, and promotion. The goal of marketing is to convince potential customers. This is accomplished by linking the promotion to this process. Promotion has to do with language communicative qualities. According to experts, companies can inform consumers about their products through public relations, sales agents, advertising, and sales promotion. Marketers must persuade the audience they want in order to generate sales(McCarthy,1960).

Larson asserted that persuasion is a complex and dynamic process. Through vocal and nonverbal cues, the persuader attempts to persuade his audience to alter his behaviour, beliefs, and attitude toward a certain issue in favour of the persuader. Messages are tied to both the sender and the recipient. Furthermore, because few people enjoy being convinced against their will, persuasion is a constantly changing art that requires implicit communication (Larson,2013).

Persuasion is crucial to marketing since it keeps businesses operating. For example, Armstrong stated that the primary goal of advertising is to convince the intended audience to buy the marketed product (Armstrong,2010). According to Osman, persuasions must be implicit in order to be effective, but according to a recent study, persuasion can happen both directly and indirectly (Osman,1987,as cited in Aziz & Othman,2020). From a linguistic perspective, persuasion is indirect and does not involve statements like "I hereby persuade you" (p. 12). Thus, the pragmatic theory of speech acts is one method used to examine persuasion.

The study of how people are influenced to alter their attitudes, beliefs, or behaviours is related to terms like persuasion, influence, rhetoric, sales strategies, and cognitive biases. The area of study is included in social psychology, which is focused on comprehending how people interact with one another and the ways in which social influences form ideas, emotions, and actions (Taillard, 2000).

These conceptualizations are important in the marketing context because they give marketers insight into how to convince customers to buy their goods or services (Sharma, 1999). Through an awareness of influence and persuasion concepts, marketers can create advertising campaigns, messaging, and sales strategies that are more likely to get a favourable response from customers (Akgun, Ayar, Etliloglu, and Keskin, 2017).

For instance, to convince customers to buy their goods, marketers may employ rhetorical strategies, including emotional appeals or specific message framing (Stif & Mongeau, 2016). In order to create a sense of urgency or persuade customers that their product is popular and desirable, they may also employ sales strategies like scarcity or social proof (Cialdini, 2007).

All things taken into account, marketing benefits greatly from the study of influence and persuasion because it enables marketers to better understand how to interact with customers and influence their choices.

2.8.2 Speech Act of Persuasion

A stimulus that modifies, shapes, or compellingly induces a reaction is referred to as a persuasive act. This reaction alters the significance of the attitudes and viewpoints about a particular subject in the act of persuasion. Stated differently, acts of persuasion are productions that are observable through behavioural changes in the audience (Walton, 2007).

A persuasive act that arises from any situation with the power of persuasion is known as a perlocutionary effect. According to a recent study, "persuasion is an act by itself that can be gained through the use of other acts beside the verb to persuade"(Jibreen and Al-Janabi, 2018, p. 35). Additionally, the use of various speech acts combined with rhetoric leads to a persuasive outcome (Alkhirbash, 2016).

Performative speech acts employ perlocutionary to illustrate illocutionary acts. Perlocutionary acts are those impacts that words have on listeners that go beyond the listener's comprehension of the utterance, according to Searle .Cases of perlocutionary acts include, for example, persuading, frightening, annoying, and funny situations(Searle, Kiefer, and Bierwisch, 1980). Furthermore, words can persuade or affect the "unintentional overhearer" and convince them to take action. Because persuasion is indirect, it is possible to create misleading components and persuade others about a specific subject(Birner ,2013,p.18).

Searle (1969) defined persuasion as a directed speech act in which the speaker seeks to persuade the listener to make a decision to take some kind of action(Searle,1969). Acts of directive, commissive, and assertive can all be applied to persuasive language. These speech acts play an important part in the persuasion process; they can be key tools for influencing the attitudes and behaviours of the listeners as well as for persuading them (Alkhirbash, 2010)

In this sense, an "assertive act" is regarded as a persuasive act since it attempts to assist the reader in deducing the speaker's motivation for bringing up their familiarity with the subject. Assertives are crucial for the accomplishment of a rhetorical goal, which is persuasion, according to Babatunde and Odepitan (2009, as cited in Aldahshan,2020).

Hashim and Safwat (2015) believe that the use of assertive verbs has a genuine value in providing any kind of factual justification to persuade and

convince the hearer or reader to alter their opinions. Persuasion, according to Searle (1979), is a directive speech act in which the speaker's goal is to get the listeners or readers to do something in an effort to connect the speaker's words with the world.

A directive act serves as a request or an instruction for the hearer to perform the actions that the speaker desires. This indicates that the speaker uses a request or demand to carry out the act of persuasion either as declarative or imperative statements (Taufik, Tarjana, & Nurkamto, 2014).

Commissive speech acts are considered effective persuasive tools, particularly when they utilise conditional forms and offer rewards in the form of promises or discuss the bad effects in the form of warnings and threats (Wielgosz, 2015, as cited in Aldahshan, 2020).

2.8.3 Persuasive Strategies

According to Aristotle, there are three fundamental strategies for persuading an audience of certain point of view: pathos, logos, and ethos. It is called persuasion rhetoric. The ability to identify potential persuasive strategies for any given topic is known as rhetoric. None of the other arts can perform this role; each is capable of instructing and persuading on a particular subject; medicine, for example, deals with health and illness. However, rhetoric seems to have the ability to identify persuasive strategies for each given topic. For this reason, one could argue that because it is an art form, its rules do not apply to any specific class of objects (Aristotle, 1926, as cited in Metsamaki, 2012).

The key terms of persuasion are defined in further depth in the sections that follow. Aristotle distinguished three types of proofs. The term "ethos" describes a writer or speaker's reliability or credibility. It is frequently conveyed through the tone and the style of the message. The effect of ethos is frequently

referred to as the "ethical appeal" or the "appeal from credibility" of the argument (Aristotle,1926,as cited in Metsamaki, 2012).

Two things make up ethos. The first are the attributes that persuaders bring to the speaking situation, such as their reputation as sincere and reliable individuals, potential expertise, or experience, if any of these are known. The speech events are related to the second component of persuasion using one's ethos. This involves the persuader's use of gestures, eye contact, vocal inflections, and other techniques when conveying the message. These are undoubtedly artistic indicators that the speaker has control over. Trust, compassion, and constructive competence are attributes that Aristotle describes as communicating ethos, indicating that success has been attained with the aid of appropriate vocabulary, tone, and structural arrangement. Additionally, ethos requires that the persuader adopt a persuader's attitude and position themselves as persuaders(Aristotle,1926,as cited in Metsamaki, 2012).

Cockroft (2005, as cited in Metsamaki, 2012) claimed that the two elements that constitute ethos are personality and position. Any spoken dialogue will reveal a person's personality, which inspires confidence in the listener. While the concept of stance relates to a broader framework of attitudes, it also refers to a sense of the persuader's position or opinion towards what is being presented(Cokcroft,2005, as cited in Metsamaki, 2012).

Pathos is another key term. In order to persuade an audience, pathos appeals to their emotions, sense of self, and sense of identity. An appeal to pathos makes the readers feel the writer's emotions, not only react emotionally. It might use the hopes and imagination of the audience. The persuader may instill in them an openness to receiving his or her thoughts. Emotional appeals for both the audience and the subject are necessary for persuasion success. By using various linguistic means, the appropriate expression choice, and

imagination, one can build emotional engagement (Cockcroft,2005, as cited in Metsamaki, 2012).

The need for delivery skills and the capacity to utilise words forcefully and passionately make emotional appeals challenging for some people. It is difficult to master the use of voice diversity, cadence, and repetition to arouse an audience's emotions (Fletcher, 2001).

The third key term is logos. Any effort to persuade someone through the use of logic is referred to as logos. As it proves or appears to prove something, the speech itself is related to logos, according to Aristotle. It is typically employed to describe data and facts that support the speaker's arguments. It refers to the intrinsic coherence of the message (Amgoud and De Saint-Cyr, 2009).

Statistics provide evidence in favour of several types of logos. Knowing the difference between statistics and facts and knowing how to use either is crucial. The phrase "studies show" is commonly used to support arguments, even though the data used to do so frequently does not accurately reflect the study's main findings. Statistics-based argumentation is the use of numbers to demonstrate the quality of a product(Lucas, 2009).

Logos is verbal persuasion; it is not physical proof. It is a presentation that persuades the audience that the conclusion offered is the appropriate one for the situation. By utilising eye-catching "logos" that demonstrate to the audience the speaker's subject-matter expertise. The most crucial elements of appeals based on credibility are the speaker's "authoritativeness" and "trustworthiness" (Bradley, 1991). They relate to the speaker's credibility, repute, and ability to evoke confidence (Barry, 1986).

Causal reasoning is the process of connecting one specific to another specific, and it is used to demonstrate that one event occurred or will occur as a

result of another cause. When the speaker refers to past occurrences, effect-to-cause reasoning is employed, while cause-to-effect reasoning is used when the speaker is talking about future events (Lucas, 2009).

2.8.4 Persuasion and Rhetoric

According to Aristotle, using rhetorical devices in language should lead to persuasion. He considers both artistic and non-artistic proofs to be valid forms of persuasion (Herrick, 2013). The organisation of the persuasive discourse, the selection of the evidence, the manner in which it is delivered, as well as the linguistic choices, are all represented by artistic proof. In contrast, inartistic proof consists of factors that are out of the speaker's control, such as the setting, the amount of time allotted, and the speaker's physical attributes (Larson, 2010). According to Aristotle's definition of rhetoric in his book *Rhetoric*, it is "the faculty of observing in any given case the available means of persuasion" (Mey, 2009, p.864).

One uses arguments, pictures, and feelings that are most likely to resonate with the specific audience he is trying to persuade. The art of persuasion is taught by rhetoricians, who have traditionally advised their pupils to deal with various audiences differently and to understand their unique and peculiar commitments, sentiments, and beliefs (Garsten, 2006).

Every form of language has the potential to be persuasive. In this particular context, persuasion might be defined more broadly to include any language use that aims to reinforce an audience's preexisting views or to alter their way of thinking or acting. However, the persuasive process also involves audiences of various kinds, including actual and inferred, visible and invisible, interlocutors, and bystanders. (Virtanen and Halmari, 2005).

The basic claim is that the assertion "I say" (*eiro* in Greek) is the source of the word rhetoric. Almost anything that has to do with communicating with

someone, whether verbally or in writing, can theoretically be studied under the umbrella of rhetoric (Young, Becker, & Pike, 1970).

A diverse collection of philosophers, speech communicators, English language experts, and composition scholars resurrected the fundamentals of classical rhetoric theory (primarily Aristotelian) in the 1950s and 1960s and combined them with ideas from contemporary philosophy, linguistics, and psychology to create what became known as the new rhetoric (Enos, 1996).

The new rhetorical theory centers on discourse as action rather than the formal or artistic aspects of a spoken or written text. Writing and speaking are evaluated according to their ability to persuade, entertain, inform, convince, enlighten, and inspire people. The traditional distinction between dialectic and rhetoric is challenged by the new rhetoric, which views rhetoric as relating to all forms of discourse, including public, professional, academic, and philosophical ones. As a result, audience considerations are seen to be relevant to all kinds of discourse (Enos, 1996).

2.9 Previous Studies on Persuasive Strategies

2.9.1 Chakorn (2006)

Chakorn (2006), in his study entitled "Persuasive and politeness strategies in cross-cultural letters of request in the Thai business context," compared various speech acts of persuasion. By examining their request letters, it was applied to native English speakers and Thai speakers who spoke English. Both quantitative and qualitative methodologies were used to analyse the data. This was accomplished by contrasting texts on a linguistic and pragmatic level. The Aristotelian concept of persuasive rhetoric served as the analysis framework.

According to the findings of the study, native English speakers employed more persuasive reasoning techniques known as *logos*. The results also showed

that the persuasive strategies of the two groups varied, which may have been indicative of their cultural origins.

2.9.2 Altikriti (2016)

This study entitled "Persuasive Speech Acts in Barack Obama's Inaugural Speeches (2009, 2013) and The Last State of the Union Address (2016)". It aimed to investigate the function of persuasion in political speeches.

In the study, three of President Obama's political speeches were chosen and examined using the Bach and Harnish Taxonomy model (1979). Data analysis shows that President Obama's sentences conducted constative speech acts more frequently than other acts, and the assertive illocutionary acts were used to support his arguments. Findings highlight the value of using persuasion techniques in political speeches and their influence on the audience.

2.9.3 Faris et al. (2016)

In the study entitled "Persuasive Strategies in Mandela's No Easy Walk to Freedom," Faris et al. (2016) examined the strategies for persuasion employed by African leader Nelson Mandela in his inauguration speech, "No Easy Walk to Freedom." Johnstone's (2008) persuasive strategies, which include quasilogical, presentational, and analogical strategies, constituted the fundamental foundation for the data analysis. Through causation, syllogism, and enthymeme, quasilogical argumentation was utilised.

Mandela, on the other hand, manipulated presentational persuasion in his speech by using metaphors, rhetorical deixis, alliteration, and repetition to provoke interest. Mandela used analogical persuasion by making a reference to the Bible. The researchers highlighted the usefulness and significance of utilising the three persuasive strategies to successfully change people's attitudes, values, and beliefs.

2.9.4 Admitama (2016)

In his study entitled "Persuasion in International Journals: Pragmatic Analysis," Admitama (2016) showed that the objectives of the study were to categorise persuasive strategies and explain the hedging strategies used by native and non-native English speakers in persuasive sentences in international journals. Descriptive qualitative research methods were used.

The documentation method, through the use of content analysis techniques, was utilised in this study to collect data. International journals serve as the data source, with 25 of the journals written in English by native speakers and 25 by non-native speakers being selected randomly and examined using Hyland's hedging strategies theory and Aristotle's theory of persuasive strategies. The examination of the native data revealed that there were 481 strategies (100%), of which 186 applied ethos (37,63%), 132 pathos (27,44%), and 168 logos (34,93%). According to the examination of the non-native data, there were 397 strategies (100%) that employed 157 ethos (39,55%), 32 pathos (8,06%), and 208 logos (52,39%).

When it comes to the usage of hedge strategies, native authors used 803 hedges (100%), including 62 based on attributes (7,72%), 463 based on reliability (57,66%), 149 were writer-oriented (18,56%), and 129 were reader-oriented (16,06%). As opposed to this, non-native authors utilised 702 hedges (100%) out of which 46 were attribute hedges (6,54%), 411 were reliability hedges (58,46%), 113 were writer-oriented hedges (16,07%), and 133 were reader-oriented hedges (18,92%).

2.9.5 Tahir and Al-Nawas (2021)

In the study entitled "A Socio-Pragmatic Study of Persuasion and the Effect of Gender in Media Language," Tahir and Al-Nawas (2021) showed that

the goal of this study was to improve an understanding of the persuasion process in English television commercials by analysing the sociolinguistic and pragmatic aspects of the targeted message in both male and female commercial advertisements.

This study aimed to identify and investigate the persuasive appeals, strategies, and speech acts used by sellers in male and female television advertising. In this study, the analysis depended on Searle's (1969) speech act theory, Lucas's (2009) persuasive appeals, and Mick and Macquarie's (1996) persuasive devices.

The study found that logos was the most popular persuasive device employed by advertisers in male English TV commercials, rating at (28.46%). The second most frequent persuasive appeal, pathos, occurred at (12.84%). Ethos had the lowest frequency of appeal (3.52%).

On the other hand, exactly like men, female TV commercial advertising has shown a strong reliance on the logical appeal rating (25.71%), pathos (8.63%), and ethos (2.87%). The representational and directive speech acts were most frequently used by advertisers in male English TV commercials, rating at (8.56%) and (6.29%), respectively. There were some variations between these results and female TV commercial advertising. Contrary to male commercials, the directive speech act occurred more often (7.37%) followed by representatives at (6.83%). Another difference was found in the commissive speech act, where males exhibited one instance but females exhibited none (0%).

The largest proportion of hyperbole in male TV commercials (34%) was used as a persuading device. Exaggerations or overstatements, which have been used to achieve certain purposes like attracting consumers' attention and stimulating their interest in a particular product, highlighting a product's

qualities, and making it seem more advantageous, were examples of hyperbole. Ellipses, which were used 3.77 percent of the time as a persuasive strategy, were followed by rhetorical questions, which were used 1.7 percent of the time. Puns and metaphors had the lowest frequency of persuasion devices, each at (0.25%).

2.10 Previous Studies on Shop Names

2.10.1 El-Yasin and Mahadin (1996)

In the study entitled "On the pragmatics of shop signs in Jordan," El-Yasin and Mahadin (1996) investigated six different ways that foreign influence manifested itself on Jordanian shop signs, including the use of foreign words or Arabic names written in Roman letters, the use of foreign words that were already common in Jordanian slang, the use of foreign brands, the use of foreign words that were unfamiliar to native speakers in any context, the use of foreign shop names, and the use of foreign languages to create an entirely foreign sign.

In this study, the linguistic content of a sample of 355 shop signs was analysed. As a result, the researchers claimed that the last three kinds were largely used to shift consumer behaviour. Therefore, adopting a foreign language could make positive impact by linking it to a desirable foreign quality.

2.10.2 Amer and Obeidat (2014)

This study is entitled "Linguistic Landscape: A Case Study of Shop Signs in Aqaba City, Jordan". It aimed to investigate English language usage in shop signs. In 278 signs for shops in Aqaba city, Amer and Obeidat (2014) looked at the language of business. To discover the justifications for using English on the shop signs, they spoke with 24 shop owners.

The survey found that bilingual store signage predominated, with the majority of the sample being written in both Arabic and English. More than half of all the signs in the sample were bilingual.

Due to the fact that Aqaba is a popular tourist destination in Jordan, Arabic names have been translated into English to provide information about services and products to foreign visitors.

According to the shop owners that were interviewed, English is mostly employed for attracting foreign customers. In addition, they stated that English is connected to modernity, prominence, and globalization.

The researchers point out that some English loanwords, like pizza or dry cleaning, have been adapted into Arabic.

2.10.3 Hussein et al.(2015)

This study is entitled "The language of shop signs in Amman: A sociolinguistic study". It looked into the languages used in shop signs in Amman from a sociolinguistic viewpoint. The researchers asked two questions about language choice and the factors that influenced it in order to fulfill the study purpose.

There were 680 shop signs all across the three areas of Al-Wehdat Camp, Sweifieh, and Jabal Al-Hussein in Amman, where the survey was carried out. Ninety participants were included in the convenience sample, which was chosen based on the completion of a three-part sociolinguistic questionnaire.

Two tools were used by the researchers: a sociolinguistic questionnaire and a survey of shops. According to the findings, shop signs can be classified as either monolingual or multilingual, depending on the languages they utilise. The findings also showed that a variety of factors, including prestige, favourable perceptions of foreign names, business interests, the kind of goods or services

offered, and the educational and socioeconomic status of customers, significantly enhanced the use of foreign names on shop signs.

2.10.4 Badran (2020)

In his study entitled "Using English in Shop Signs in Palestine: A Sociolinguistic Study," Badran (2020) showed that the purpose of this study was to find out how Palestinian shop names were shifting towards utilising English.

In addition to determining the shop owners' attitudes toward the use of foreign names, it also aimed to determine the factors that influenced the use of English in shop names and the effect that foreign shop names had on Arabic identity. In this study, qualitative and quantitative analysis were adopted.

The objective of the quantitative analysis was to quantify the percentages and frequencies of shop signage that was written in English or Arabic. A questionnaire and a survey of 600 commercial shop signs were used to collect the data. Only Ramallah, Bethlehem, and Hebron were included in this study.

The results of the investigation showed that the language choices made for shop signs were made with considerations for economic, social, demographic, and attitudinal factors in mind.

The results demonstrated that rich regions rather than poor ones tended to adopt multilingual English signs. However, poor neighborhoods tended to use Arabic signs.

The study found that some shop owners attempted to improve their businesses self-image by renaming their shops in English rather than Arabic. Arabic and English were therefore chosen for various reasons, based on the level of social status that is widespread in the shopping areas.

2.10.5 Al-Obaidi (2020)

In his study entitled "Language Choice of the Shop Signs in Baghdad: A Sociolinguistic Study," Al-Obaidi (2020) looked into the languages used on shop signs in Baghdad and examined the factors that affected the language choice of naming given to the shop signs.

To accomplish the goals of the study, the researcher conducted a sociolinguistic survey and a pilot study. The sample was made up of 200 shop names chosen from three different areas in Baghdad: Hay Al-Mansour, Al-Ghazaliya, and Al-Shaab.

Thirty shop owners received the questionnaires and were required to respond to the pilot study questions in order to help develop the main questionnaire.

Results indicated that shop owners were increasingly using foreign names on their shop signs. Arabic, foreign, and a combination of Arabic and foreign were the languages that were either chosen as monolingual or bilingual signs for the shops.

Regarding the contributing factors, there was a close relationship between prestige and business motivations to adopt foreign names. Participants thought that using foreign names on their shop signs would increase sales. Since Arabic serves as Baghdad's official language and helps people recognise their signs from one another, attitudes toward using Arabic for shop signs were positive.

2.11 The Current Study

After discussing the previous studies that have been mentioned above, it is important to pinpoint the differences between the current study and the previous studies. First, in most of the previous studies, shop names were investigated from a sociolinguistic or pragmatic perspective; in contrast, the

present study investigates shop names from a socio-pragmatic perspective in order to uncover the strategies that are used in naming shops for persuasive purposes. None of the previous studies have investigated the persuasive strategies in shop names. The present study uses multimodal methods for analysing persuasive strategies in shop names, such as Searle's (1969) model for analysing speech acts, Luca's (2009) model for investigating persuasive appeals, Brown and Levinson's (1987) model for investigating politeness strategies that appear in shop names, and the model of social variables for analysing the social variables. To conclude, shop names have been investigated in different places and contexts, but none of the previous studies have investigated shop names in Karbala City.

Chapter Three

Methodology

3.0 Preliminary Remarks

This chapter covers research instruments, data collection and selection, research design, and method of data analysis. The theoretical framework and the model constituent parts are then defined and described. Finally, the validity and reliability of the study are discussed, and an explanation of the statistical tools is provided.

3.1 Research Design

Research design is an organised procedure that goes beyond merely the acquisition of information to include gathering, analysing, and interpreting data to enhance comprehension of the subject under investigation (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016).

The present study used a mixed methods approach, including both qualitative and quantitative analysis. The "study of things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of ,or interpret phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them" is one definition of qualitative research (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994, p. 2).

The social context is crucial because it shapes the meaning of social acts, which is why it is most crucial to note that qualitative research is "situationally constrained" (Neuman, 2014, p. 17). However, it is noted that quantitative research makes use of statistical techniques that are grounded in numerical measurements of particular features of phenomena, as well as simply duplicated by several investigators (King, Keohane, & Verba ,1994, pp. 3–4).

According to Williams (2007), it entails "the collection of data so that information can be quantified and subjected to statistical treatment in order to support or refute alternate knowledge claims"(p. 66).

Due to this combination, the two approaches complement and reinforce one another, producing research that is "richer and more comprehensive" (Creswell, 2009, p. 203; Neuman, 2014, p. 167). This kind of mixed-methods approach can help the researcher get deeper into the data, which is why it's thought to improve the validity of the study and identify the problem under investigation from a more comprehensive angle.

Research design, in particular, depends on methods and plans that are crucial for organising the study, from just general concepts to essentially itemised methods for data collection and analysis (Creswell, 2009). There are variations in research design. A range of techniques can be connected to hypotheses, regardless of the kind that is employed (Marczyk et al., 2005).

The current study evaluates these data and validates the hypotheses using a mixed-methods approach. Speech acts, politeness strategies, persuasive strategies, and social variables are the four categories in which the data are examined using a qualitative data analysis. Additionally, quantitative data is covered. This study used a questionnaire to get information from shop owners about how and why they use English in their store names. The Likert scale, which is used to collect responses, is employed in the questionnaire to show how frequently the shop owners use these English names for persuasive purposes. The quantitative component of the study involves using the Statistical Programme for Social Sciences (SPSS) as a statistical tool.

3.2 Research Instruments

Three tools were employed in this study in order to meet its goals. Both the pilot and the sociolinguistic questionnaire are instruments; the pilot

questionnaire is the first. The researcher used the data gathered from the pilot study to design the main questionnaire. As the main questionnaire was completed, its validity and reliability were achieved. Furthermore, the pilot questionnaire comprised open-ended questions aiming at examining the languages used in shop names, whether they were bilingual or monolingual, the purpose of selecting English for shop names writing, and the respondents' ideas towards this language.

The sociolinguistic questionnaire serves as the second instrument. It contained questions regarding the purposes of using English in naming shops. The intended respondents were given copies of the questionnaire. The frequencies and percentages of the results were displayed in tables. In its completed form, the questionnaire has been regarded as a trustworthy instrument of measurement, as it was given to 40 shop owners in the city centre of Karbala as a sample.

The researcher, who obtains data directly from the natural world, is the main tool in qualitative research, according to Bogdan and Biklen (1982). A researcher also plans, gathers, analyses, interprets, and reports research findings that result in a qualitative study (Moleong & Lexy, 2001). As such, the researcher's comprehension of the persuasive strategies used in naming shops and how they are used serves as the third essential tool in this study.

3.2.1 Questionnaire

The purposes of shop owners regarding the use of English in naming their shops were investigated using a three-point Likert scale questionnaire. In order to help the respondents concentrate on the right choice and maintain their attention, the researcher presents only a three-point Likert scale (agree, disagree, and neutral).

In order to comfort the respondents, the questionnaire begins with an introduction that includes information about the researcher, the goal of the study, and the secrecy of the data provided. It also includes a range of significant social variables, such as age, educational attainment, language used in shop name, and gender of the shop. After that, there is a section with 12 statements about the purposes behind the use of English in naming shops. Six professors in the field of linguistics from Kerbala University validated the questionnaire.

The questionnaire organisation, content, and presentation all follow Cohen's (2007) suggestions, which are useful principles for research projects. The design of the questionnaire is semi-structured for internal organization (Cohen, et al, 2007).

The completed questionnaire forms are included in (Appendix A) of the thesis. In this form, closed questions provide two possible responses that the participant can choose from (dichotomous questions).

The opening section of the questionnaire collects just the variable data, which includes age, while dichotomous questions, which only provide two potential answers, are used as a sorting technique for questions that follow in the section of other variables.

Using a questionnaire is recommended because of its numerous benefits, which include providing structured, typically numerical data and being a common and practical technique for gathering survey information. It is usually formatted for easy analysis and can be delivered even when the researcher is not present.

When the shop owner is unfamiliar with an online questionnaires, the questionnaire can also be completed on paper. In order to preserve secrecy and promote greater honesty in the responses, all respondents filled out a

questionnaire lacking all identifying information, including names, addresses, or code symbols.

The questionnaire could be filled out either in Arabic or in English, and most respondents chose to fill out the Arabic version. The questionnaire was written in both languages. The questionnaire was filled out by 40 shop owners from the central areas. Some difficulties in getting the responses were illustrated by rejecting participation in filling out the questionnaire because they were afraid that the researcher may be an employee at the Iraqi Censorship Department or that some shop owners were absent or busy with customers. Accordingly, just 40 participants responded.

3.3 Data Collection and Selection

3.3.1 Criteria of Data Collection:

The data used in this study is selected on purpose. Maxwell(1997,as cited in Teddlie&Yu,2007) defines purposeful sampling as a type of sampling in which specific environments, individuals, or events are specifically chosen for the valuable information they can offer that cannot be obtained as effectively from other options. Consequently, the application of particular criteria can support this selection. In the present study, the selection was based on the following criteria:

1-Shop names are what first draw customers attention, influence how they perceive the products, and reflect societal tendencies and thoughts.

2- The selection of monolingual English shop names is due to English globalisation in recent years and also because this research is introduced in English.

3-In order to include a variety of shop types, the data comprises 40 shop names.

4-The areas are randomly selected because of their central locations in the city, which draw visitors and enhance commerce.

3.3.2 Procedures for Data Collection and Selection

The sample was selected from a variety of areas within the centre of Karbala City. These regions were picked due to their central locations, which attract a lot of tourists and promote business(See Appendix C). The data consisted of monolingual English names of shops that were written in bold at the top of the shopfront sign and ignored any other translation or information that may be placed in other parts of the shopfront sign. There were just 40 shop names in the sample. These shops vary in terms of the products and services they offer, including clothes shops, phone shopping centres, restaurants, cafes, medical centres, shoe shops, and others. The researcher first gathered over 100 photos for various shop names, but only 40 names were chosen to be examined later based on the previously mentioned criteria. It took two months to gather all of the data. The researcher has utilised various methods to get the required data for these shop names. Specifically, the researcher's smartphone camera, social media sites like Facebook Pages, and websites like Google Search Engine were used to gather shop names. The researcher designed a sociolinguistic questionnaire, distributed it to 40 participants, and gathered their responses to examine the persuasive purposes underlying the usage of English in shop names.

3.4 Method of Data Analysis

According to Leavy (2017), the research needs are selected based on how well they will test hypotheses, meet research aims, or solve research questions. Generally, research is divided into qualitative and quantitative sections.

A useful research technique that may be applied to both small- and large-scale projects is quantitative data analysis. It is a statistical technique built upon numerical analysis with computer assistance (Cohen et al., 2007). The Statistical Package for Social Science, or SPSS, is one of the many statistical software tools available for defining and analysing quantitative data collections (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016).

The second most widely used kind of research is qualitative, which focuses on naturally occurring events. There's no numerical representation for the data given (Mackey & Gass, 2005).

Interpretation is highly valued in qualitative methods and data analysis, even though there are numerous interpretations that can be made (Cohen et al., 2007).

Projects that integrate quantitative and qualitative methodologies are referred to as mixed methods research (MMR) (Leavy, 2017, as cited in Mezeal, 2023). Such integration is not only vital but also crucial because the qualitative and quantitative components of research subjects are nearly always compromised. Thus, in order to fully cover the aforementioned dimensions, the researcher will need to employ both methods. This inclusion extends beyond the simple data collection, analysis, and interpretation processes and includes the findings from both qualitative and quantitative data analyses (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016, as cited in Mezeal, 2023).

The quantitative technique is a top-down strategy that requires evaluation with the aim of focusing on objectivity and statistical explanation (Fallon, 2016, as cited in Leavy, 2017).

These approaches are also deductive and aim to corroborate the validity of existing hypotheses (Leavy, 2017). Furthermore, in order to evaluate hypotheses, these variables (age, level of education, and gender) are crucial.

The main goal of qualitative approach is to show people's subjective meanings in depth within the framework of their skills, or, to put it another way, how they construct meaning. These strategies for meaning-building are sometimes referred to as inductive due to their role in producing meaning (Leavy, 2017).

The procedures used in the current study are applied using a mixed-method approach. The quantitative analysis measures the percentages and frequencies of demographic variables associated with the variety of English usage in shop names. The quantitative data is analysed with the SPSS V24 programme (CHEST). It centred on the goals of utilising English in shop names, based on a questionnaire given to 40 participants. Qualitative analysis based on particular classifications, such as speech acts, persuasive strategies, and politeness strategies, is used to analyse monolingual English shop names. The selected model of social variables is used for analysing social variables qualitatively.

3.5 The Eclectic Model of Analysis

Four models are included in the framework that is chosen to analyse the data qualitatively. Firstly, Searle's (1969) speech act model. The speech acts are classified according to Searle's theory of speech acts, which includes declaratives, directives, expressives, commissives, and representatives. This model is used to investigate the different types of speech acts used for persuasion. In the present study, only three categories of speech acts are investigated (representative, directive, and declarative), while others are excluded because they aren't applicable in the data.

Secondly, the analysis of the persuasive strategies in the chosen data is done using Lucas's (2009) model. These include the appeals of logos, ethos, and pathos proposed by Aristotle. The third model, which is selected to analyse the

politeness strategies found in shop names, is that of Brown and Levinson (1987). Finally, the analysis of social variables is done using the eclectic model of social variables. The components of the eclectic model are as follows:

3.5.1 Social Variables

According to Gumperz (1992), social variables are part of a broader category of indexical indicators that guide the interpretation of purpose, and they are intrinsically constitutive of social reality. In the present study, the researcher used three social factors (age, gender, and educational background).

3.5.1.1 Age

One social aspect that affects linguistic variety is the speaker's age. In most societies, age stratification is not evident. Generations after generation have continued to be part of numerous speech communities that communicate in different ways, to differing degrees. All that separates the younger generations from others is that they belong to a unique language community. Its evident involvement in language change makes it significant. One generation uses a wide variety of vocabulary that another finds strange or ambiguous. This is the main factor influencing linguistic evolution. In general, younger individuals use a vast array of linguistic phrases that older people might not comprehend, and vice versa (Wardhaugh, 2006).

3.5.1.2 Gender

Holmes (2013) asserts that gender is fixed and unchangeable and that anybody who interacts with it is assigned to one of the two genders, male or female. Gender identity is not a fixed attribute but a construct. It's also useful in showing how males adapt to feminine situations by utilising feminine and manly traits, and how women adapt to manly ones.

According to William Labov's theory of the gender paradox, women use more innovative vernacular forms that occur below the level of public awareness than men do, even though they adopt prestige forms of language from higher ranks and above the level of public consciousness at a higher rate than men (Labov, 1990).

3.5.1.3 Educational Background

Scholars have additionally emphasised the direct correlation between education level and linguistic variations. Language difference is the use of phonological and grammatical characteristics of language, which enable speakers of a particular language to communicate ideas using various word choices and pronunciations. In most cases, language users should stick to the standard language on the grounds that the original or intended meaning of the two language forms should be fully maintained, according to Seyyedrezaei (2013, as cited in Ibrahim, 2020).

Those who have not received a high level of education will usually not be able to acquire more than one language. Conversely, a highly educated person has the abilities needed to analyse a standard language (Seyyedrezaei, 2013, as cited in Ibrahim, 2020).

3.5.2 Lucas's Persuasive strategies

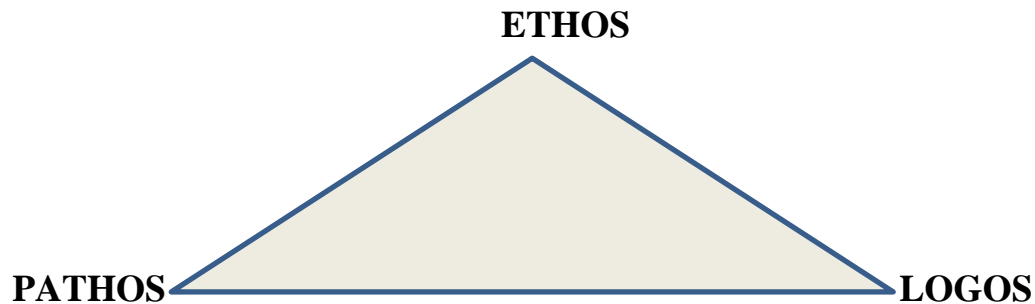
Lucas (2009) stated that there are four reasons why a speech or written work can influence someone: "Because they perceive the speaker as having high credibility. Because they are won over the speaker's evidence. Because they are convinced by the speaker's reasoning. Because their emotions are touched by the speaker's ideas or language" (p. 352).

According to Stephan Lucas (2009), there are three rhetorical appeals that are important for persuasion: ethos, logos, and pathos. These are in line with

Aristotle's views on rhetoric and persuasion. In order to make writing or speaking more powerful and convincing, he describes the key elements, variables, and tactics for every appeal (Lucas,2009).

Figure 1

Lucas's(2009) model



(i) **Ethos: (Appeal to Values and Trust)**

The audience's values and the author's credibility or character are the two aspects of ethical appeals (Gagich&Zickel,2018).

"The audience's perception of whether a speaker is qualified to speak on a given topic"(Lucas, 2009, p. 353) is the definition of credibility. Character and competence are the two fundamental variables that have an impact on it. Competence is the audience's perception of the speaker's experience, authenticity, and intelligence on a subject; character is how the audience views the speaker's reputation, dependability, and physical attraction (Lucas, 2009).

An author making an ethical appeal is, on the one hand, trying to appeal to the audience's values or beliefs; these could include self-preservation, justice, equality, tradition, patriotism, or other particular social, religious, or philosophical values (feminism, socialism, capitalism, Christian values, etc.). Though these values are sensed on a social as well as a personal level, they can occasionally feel close to emotions (Gagich&Zickel,2018). The reader will get the impression that the author is presenting a morally "right" argument. The

author, on the other hand, is connected to the other notion of ethos through this reference to what is "right" in an ethical argument. Two ideas are fundamental to an ethos that centres on the author: the author's character and trustworthiness (Gagich&Zickel,2018).

(ii) Pathos: (Appeal to Emotions)

The pathos appeal, which speakers and writers use to address and arouse the emotions and feelings of their audience, is what Lucas (2009) refers to as appealing to people's emotions. He goes on to discuss strategies for arousing people's feelings, such as speaking with honesty and conviction, discussing and creating vivid examples, and employing expressive language that is rich with emotions (Lucas,2009). An author who makes pathetic appeals hopes to evoke strong emotions in the reader, such as pride, excitement, rage, or happiness. Pathetic appeals might involve (Gagich&Zickel,2018):

1-Expressive descriptions of individuals, locations, or events that let the reader sense or experience those things.

2-Vivid imagery of persons, locations, or events that gives the reader the impression that they are actually happening.

3-Presenting personal stories that elicit sympathy or a sense of connection from the reader for the person being portrayed.

4-Putting the reader in that particular emotional state by employing emotionally laden words.

5-Utilising any information that will cause the audience to feel something. This could entail connecting with or rejecting the person, group, or event under discussion, or it could entail evoking feelings of revulsion or empathy in the audience (Gagich&Zickel,2018).

(iii) Logos: (Appeal to Logic)

According to Lucas (2009), Aristotle identified a speaker's logical appeal as the logos appeal. Reasoning and evidence are the two main components of logos. As a result, he distinguishes causal and analogical reasoning as the two main categories of reasoning that comprise logical appeal.

The goal of casual reasoning is to determine the cause-and-effect link. Analogical reasoning, according to Lucas (2009), is a style of reasoning when a speaker considers two cases that are similar and deduces that what is true for the first case must also be true for the second. In order to establish and strengthen credibility and persuade an audience, evidence is essential. Numerous corroborating elements are employed as proof, such as particular examples and statistics, citations from reliable sources, and quotations (Lucas, 2009).

3.5.3 Searle's Classification of Speech Acts (1979)

The speech act theory, as proposed by Searle (1979), views speech as the fundamental unit of linguistic communication. Speech acts might manifest as sounds, words, phrases, or sentences. According to Searle (1979), the speech act theory is concerned with the various meaningful acts that can be performed using language, including commands, orders, promises, requests, assertions, experiences of joy and sorrow, or factual declarations. Consequently, Searle (1979) establishes what is known as Searle's typology of speech acts, which classifies the illocutionary force into five categories: assertive, commissive, directive, expressive, and declarative(Searle,1979). In the present study, only three categories of speech acts are investigated (representative, directive, and declarative).

Table 1*Classification of Speech Acts(Searle,1979)*

Classification of Speech Acts	Definition
Assertive/ Representative	Expresses the speaker's assertion that what is said is true, whether they are making recommendations, telling stories, drawing conclusions, grumbling, bragging, or describing.
Directive	Tries to persuade the listener to take action. The following are examples of attempts to persuade someone to do something: commanding, challenging, inviting, or requesting.
Declarative	The emergence of a new situation, such as announcing or nominating.

3.5.4 Brown and Levinson's(1987) Politeness Strategies

The basis of Brown and Levinson's (1987) Politeness Theory is the notion that communication is both potentially hostile and essential to social relationships, potentially harming an individual's desired face or self-image within a specific socio-cultural system.

According to Brown and Levinson (1987), each person has two distinct faces or wants: positive and negative. The need for acceptance, respect, approval, and appreciation from others is a positive face; on the other hand, the desire for unrestricted freedom to act is a negative face.

When interacting with others, politeness can be used to demonstrate awareness of their faces. In this way, being respectful can be achieved through social distance. Social closeness is defined as friendliness, solidarity, or

companionship; social distance, on the other hand, is defined as respect or courtesy (Brown and Levinson, 1987).

In order to preserve the listener's face, politeness strategies can be used to keep someone from feeling awkward or humiliated. Four primary categories can be used to categorise the politeness strategies of Brown and Levinson (1987): bald-on-record, positive, negative, and off-record politeness strategies.

(i) Bald on record

The bald-on-record strategy is a straightforward approach to expressing things in an obvious, simple, unambiguous, and direct manner without minimization of the imposition, according to Brown and Levinson (1987).

The following are instances of bald-on-record strategies: extreme urgency; speaking as though extreme efficiency is required; task-oriented; having little or no desire to keep someone's face intact; alerting; welcoming; offering; and making requests (Brown and Levinson ,1987).

As an illustration, some examples are provided based on Brown and Levinson (1987):

1. Extreme urgency: be careful!.
2. Communicating as though extreme efficiency is required: listen to me.
3. Task-oriented: pass me the nail.
4. Request: hand me the pen.

(ii) Positive politeness

Constructive politeness is the second tactic, which is typically employed in social settings where individuals belong to the same social circle or in groups of friends. By displaying intimacy and a strong desire to follow the speech

(minimise FTA), it usually seeks to minimise the gap between them; in other words, this strategy aims to minimise the audience's risk (Brown and Levinson, 1987).

The following are instances of positive politeness strategies: Pay attention; observe the hearer; exaggerate; show more interest in the hearer; utilise an in-group identification marker; seek agreement; avoid disagreement; establish common ground; make a joke; imply cooperation between the speaker and the hearer; imply or declare that the speaker is aware of and cares about the hearer's desires; offer; promise; be optimistic; engage both speaker and hearer in the activity; give or ask for reasons; presuppose or declare reciprocity; and satisfy the hearer's desires by giving a gift to them (Brown and Levinson, 1987).

As an illustration, some examples are provided according to Brown and Levinson (1987).

1. Notice, attend to the hearer: "What a beautiful vase this is! Where did it come from?" (p.103).
2. Exaggerate (Interest, Approval, Sympathy with the Hearer): "What a fantastic garden you have!" (p.104).
3. Intensify interest to the hearer: "I never imagined that there were thousands of beautiful girls at Jim's party last night!" (p.106).
4. Use in group identity markers: "help me with this bag here, will you? (son, pal)" (p. 108).
5. Seek agreement: "Yes, you're right" (Brown and Levinson, 1987, as cited in García-Pastor, 2005, p.51).
6. Presuppose, raise, and assert common ground: "People say he's broke, Yes I've heard" (Brown and Levinson, 1987, as cited in García-Pastor, 2005, p.51).

7. Joke: "OK if I tackle those cookies now?" (Brown and Levinson,1987,as cited in Servitia,2017, p.5).

8. Assert of presuppose or raise speaker's knowledge and concern for the hearer's wants: "I know you can't bear parties, but this one will really be good; do come!" (Brown and Levinson,1987,as cited in Servitia,2017, p.5).

9. Offer, Promise: "If you clean the house, I will cook for our dinner" (Brown and Levinson,1987, p. 125).

10. Be optimistic: "you will lend me your lawnmower for the weekend"(Brown and Levinson,1987,as cited in Servitia,2017, p.6).

11. Include the speaker and the hearer in the activity:"let's stop for a bite"(p.6).

12.Give gifts to the hearer (goods, sympathy, understanding, cooperation): "You'll be alright"(Brown and Levinson,1987,as cited in García-Pastor,2005, p.51).

(iii) Negative politeness

Negative politeness, which is more concentrated and specific, is the foundation of respectful behaviour, according to Brown and Levinson (1987). The following are instances of negative politeness strategies: question, hedge, be pessimistic, minimise the imposition, give deference, offer apologies, impersonalize the speaker and hearer, state the FTAs as a general rule, nominalize and be conventionally indirect (Brown and Levinson ,1987).

As an illustration, some examples are provided according to Brown and Levinson (1987, as cited in García-Pastor,2005, p.51):

1. Be conventionally indirect: "Can you pass me the salt".

2. Question, hedge: "I wonder if you could help me".

3. Give respect: "After you, sir".

4. Apologise: "I'm really sorry I couldn't go".

5. Impersonalize speaker and hearer: "It's necessary you do this, John".

6. State the FTA as a general rule: "No smoking in this room".

7. Nominalize: "Her failure in the test" v "She failed the test".

(iv) Off-record

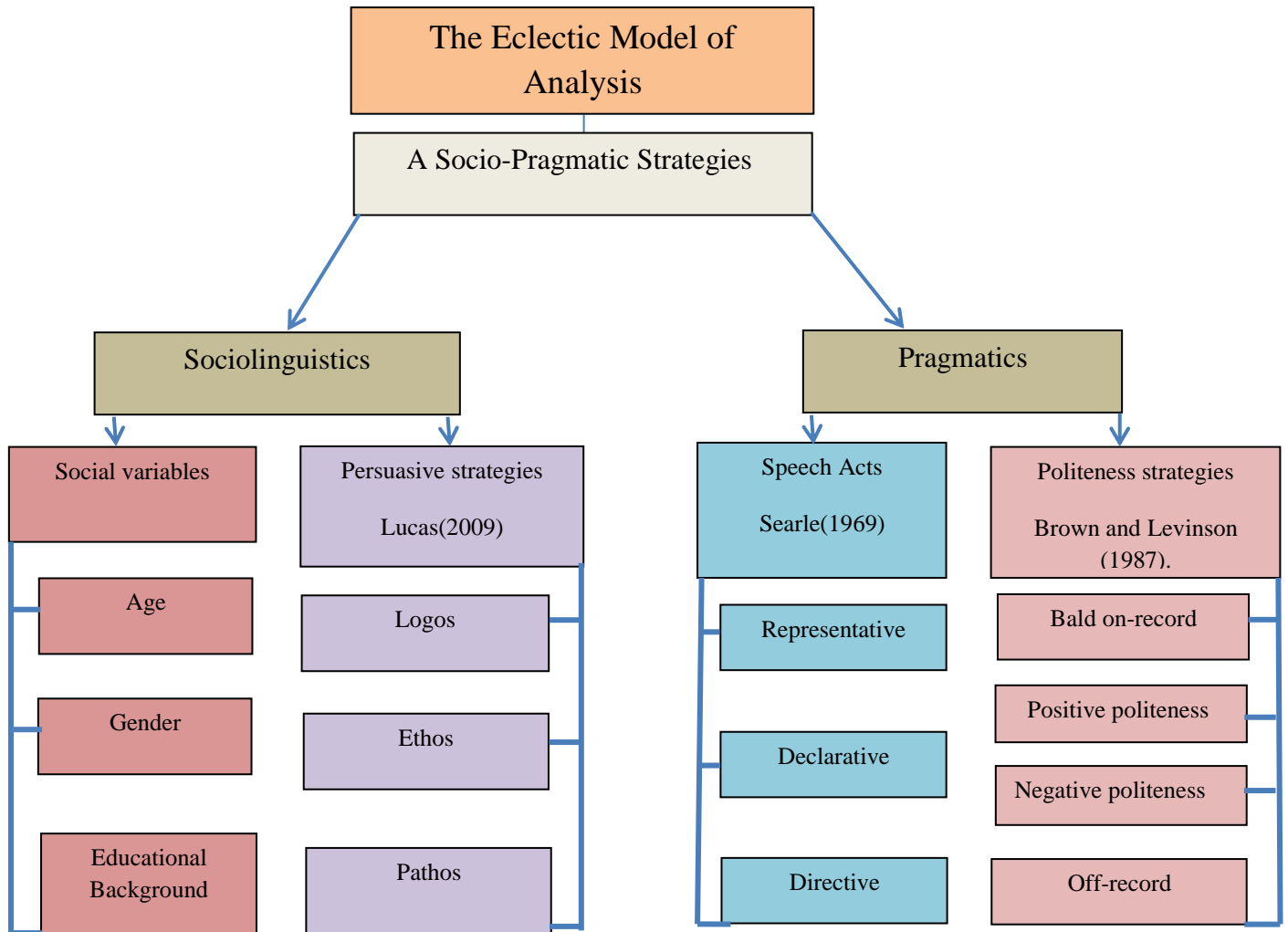
The off-record strategy, according to Brown and Levinson (1987), reduces the speaker's possibility of being imposed and uses indirect language. To be able to determine what is intended, the hearer must draw an inference. Additionally, it shows that the speakers can use this strategy to get away from their responsibility of carrying out FTAs. Furthermore, one of the primary non-recording strategies and its subcategories consists of: hints, exaggeration, association clues, presumption, understatement, overstatement, use of tautologies, contradictions, irony, metaphors, and rhetorical questions, as listed by Brown and Levinson (1987). The other main strategy is called unclear or unsure, and its subcategories include incomplete, be ambiguous, vague, and overgeneralize. The following instances consist of off-record strategies based on Brown and Levinson (1987).

1. Give hints: I must have lost my pen

2. Be vague: Possibly someone need to have carried a larger role.

Figure 2

The Eclectic Model of Analysis



3.6 Validity and Reliability

Validity is the extent to which a test measures what it is supposed to measure or can be successfully used for the intended purpose (Dorn, Madeja, & Sabol, 2013). According to DeMarrais and Lapan (2004), validity is used to guarantee the accuracy of the findings of the study. Moreover, validity determines whether or not the study outcomes can be taken seriously.

According to Creswell (2009), reliability is the study of response stability or consistency and pertains to the internal consistency of item scores on an instrument. According to Axinn and Pearce (2006), the conclusion is that requirements for both validity and reliability are essential, especially in quantitative research.

In its completed form, the questionnaire has been regarded as a trustworthy instrument of measurement. It is given to 40 shop owners from various locations within the centre of Karbala City as a sample. Asking linguists that have specialised knowledge ensured the validity and reliability of the questionnaire. The researcher employed Alpha Cronbach measuring tool to assess reliability. The estimated outcome was (0.87).

3.6.1 Triangulation

Particularly in qualitative research, triangulation is a powerful technique for proving validity (Campbell & Fiske, 1959, as cited in Cohen et al., 2007). It is a cooperative research method that addresses the same research question by combining several strategies or data sources (Leavy, 2017, as cited in Mezeal, 2023).

It is used excessively when combining qualitative and quantitative approaches to address a single study issue, as is the case with mixed-method research and qualitative research (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016). To solve the

research problems, this technique combines a range of concepts, data sources, and methods (Salkind, 2010, pp. 36-7). There are two types of triangulation: methodological triangulation and data triangulation (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 142).

Each one of these categories can improve the research validity when several procedures are applied (Salkind, 2010). Measurement consistency in particular, as well as dependability in general, are referred to as reliability. It is concerned with the stability and consistency of the score over time, space, and conditions (Marczyk et al., 2005). In experimental treatments, for example, a measure is considered dependable if it produces repeatable results (Leavy, 2017).

In general, consistency is defined as consistent results and conclusions based on the method of gathering data. The chi-square test, Cronbach, and SPSS, three reliable measuring instruments, are used in this study to achieve reliability.

3.7 Statistical Tools

The following statistical tools were applied to the research analysis:

1. Using percentages and frequencies to explain demographic variables, the diverse English usage in shop names, and the responses of participants on a three-point Likert scale. In addition, to determine the frequency and percentage of each persuasive strategy used in shop names, the following formula is used:

$$\text{Percentage of occurrence} = \frac{\text{Number of occurrence}}{\text{Total number of strategies or devices}} \times 100$$

2. Analysis of variance with the Chi-Square test.

When examining the relationship between two variables to determine whether there is a connection, a statistical test known as the Chi-Square Test is utilised. In order to determine whether there are any significant variations, the observed and expected frequencies are compared (Corder & Foreman, 2014).

For the purpose of investigating whether there is a significant variation in English usage based on social variables, as well as whether there is a significant difference between the expected and actual frequency in the answers of the shop owners, a Chi-square test is utilised in this analysis.

The acceptance or rejection of the hypothesis depends on its degree of significance. If the P-value of the test is greater than 0.05, indicating that there are no significant differences between the observed and expected frequencies, the researcher accepts the null hypothesis. The researcher will reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis if the P-value of the test is less than 0.05. This implies that there are significant differences between the observed and expected frequencies.

3. Using the Alpha Cronbach measuring tool to assess reliability.

In order to quantify the internal consistency of a test or scale, Lee Cronbach developed alpha in 1951. Alpha is represented as a number between 0 and 1. The degree to which every item on a test measures the same idea or construct is known as internal consistency (Cronbach, 1951, as cited in Tavakol & Dennick, 2011).

Above all, alpha is based on the "tau equivalent model," which holds that every item on the test evaluates the same latent characteristic on the same scale. Consequently, this assumption is broken, and alpha underestimates the reliability of the test if several factors or features, as identified by factor

analysis, underlie the items on a scale (Green & Thompson, 2005, as cited in Tavakol & Dennick, 2011).

The assumption of tau-equivalence will also be broken, and reliability will be underestimated if there are insufficient test items. Alpha reaches a more accurate estimate of reliability when test items satisfy the tau-equivalent model assumptions (Graham, 2006, as cited in Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). As previously mentioned, the value of alpha is influenced by the quantity of test items, item interconnection, and dimensionality (Cortina, 1993, as cited in Tavakol & Dennick, 2011).

Reports differ regarding acceptable alpha levels, which can range from 0.70 to 0.95 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994; Bland & Altman, 1997; DeVellis, 2003, as cited in Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). A low alpha value may be the result of heterogeneous constructs, a small number of questions, or weak item interrelatedness. Alpha may indicate that some items are redundant since they test the same question under a different name if it is excessively high. It is advised to use an alpha value of no more than 0.90 (Streiner, 2003, as cited in Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). In the analysis of assessments and questionnaires, alpha is a crucial concept. In order to enhance the credibility and precision of their data interpretation, assessors and researchers must estimate this value (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011).

Chapter Four

Data Analysis and Discussion of Results

4.0 Preliminary Remarks

This chapter presents data analysis and reports the findings related to the research questions. It consists of two sections that elucidate the results. The first is a qualitative analysis of the data gathered by the researcher, which comprises social variables of the questionnaire sample and monolingual English names. The second section provides a quantitative analysis of the data using SPSS and its statistical tools.

4.1 Qualitative Analysis

The role of qualitative analysis is to present a detailed analysis of the data gathered by the researcher. The following analysis is shown in two separate parts. The first part uses a table to present a detailed description of the social variables of the sample and their occurrence based on the questionnaire. The second part deals with a qualitative analysis of monolingual English names. The analysis of these two parts depends on the analytic model mentioned earlier in Chapter Three.

4.1.1 Analysis of Social Variables

The investigation of the social variables of the sample in terms of age, gender and educational background depends on the eclectic model of social variables which presented in Chapter Three.

Table 2
Analysis of Social Variables

variable	Category	frequency
Age	19 -25	16
	25-35	15
	More than 35	9
	Total	40
Education	University level	28
	Lower than university level	12
	Total	40
The gender of the shop	Women's product shop	21
	Men's product shop	19
	Total	40

The questionnaire included a variety of social variables. Table 2 shows that shop owners were classified according to their age into three categories: young (19–25), adult (25–35), and middle age(more than 35). Young shop owners comprised 16 out of 40, while adults comprised 15 and middle-aged shop owners comprised 9 out of 40.

Shop owners were also categorised into two classes in terms of their educational levels. The first class consisted of the university level, which comprised 28 out of the whole sample, while the second class consisted of the level lower than the university, which comprised 12 out of the whole sample.

Table 2, in addition, indicates that shops were divided into two categories concerning the gender of shop products. First, women's product shops included 21 out of the whole sample, while men's product shops included 19 out of the whole sample (40).

The analysis of social variables illustrated that the majority of shop owners in the sample were young, had a high level of education, or were selling women's products. This means that these categories may prefer using English as monolingual or bilingual in shop names more than other categories. Since the questionnaire included just the shops that use English in their names as bilingual or monolingual, and since the sample was selected randomly, it can be considered representative of the categories that use English in naming shops.

4.1.2 Analysis of Monolingual English Shop names

The analysis of monolingual English shop names in terms of persuasive strategies, speech acts, and politeness strategies used for persuasion depends on three models. These are Lucas's (2009) model, Searle's (1969) model, and Brown and Levinson's (1987) model. The following analysis includes 40 monolingual shop names that were selected as a sample for this study. The names were ordered by a number.

1) Italian decor

Persuasive strategies

Ethos: It appeals to credibility by using the name of a foreign country that is famous for its high-quality products.

Speech acts

Representative: It informs customers that the products have an Italian style.

Politeness strategies

Off-record: It gives hints, making the readers infer that the products have high quality.

2) Dr.Ameer Alassady

Persuasive strategies

Ethos: It appeals to credibility by presenting the postgraduate academic degree (Dr.) before the name of the person.

Speech acts

Representative: It informs customers that the service is provided by a specialist.

Politeness strategies

Off-record: It gives hints, which leaves readers with the impression that this individual, who holds a degree from a medical institution, is the one who provides the service.

3) Lava cafe

Persuasive strategies

Pathos: It appeals to customers' emotions, making them imagine an atmosphere of superiority and high energy associated with lava.

Speech acts

Representative: It describes the cafe as having the highest rank of superiority and energy.

Politeness strategies

Off-record: There is an overstatement in describing the shop using the word (lava) to give the readers hints that the products can create an atmosphere of high energy and superiority.

4) Love life, love Miniso

Persuasive strategies

Pathos: It appeals to customers' sense of love.

Ethos: It appeals to credibility using a famous global brand name (Miniso).

Speech acts

Directive: It includes imperative sentences, which represent a direct way to invite customers to change their desires.

Politeness strategies

Bald on record: It expresses one literal meaning in a direct way to influence the reader's desires and invite them to engage in love with the shop brand.

5) Top man

Persuasive strategies

Pathos: It appeals to customers' sense of prestige.

Speech acts

Representative: It describes a man wearing this product as a man of high status.

Politeness strategies

Off-record: It gives hints, making the readers infer that the products are suitable for men in high positions.

6) Kids disney

Persuasive strategies

Pathos: It appeals to customers' emotions, creating a sense of excitement and delight associated with Disney

Speech acts

Representative: It informs customers about the nature of the shop, which focuses on kids-related products.

Politeness strategies

Positive politeness: It provides notice and attends to the reader's interest, indicating that the products are designed to suit the interests and needs of children by enhancing this positive association of kids with Disney, which represents their desire. This creates a positive and welcoming impression for potential customers.

7) Chocolate bar

Persuasive strategies

Pathos: It appeals to customers' emotions, making them imagine a desirable sweet taste associated with chocolate.

Speech acts

Representative: It informs customers that the sweet is sold in this shop.

Politeness strategies

Off-record: It gives hints, allowing readers to infer that the taste of the sweets sold in this shop is delicious as associated with chocolate.

8) Crown furniture

Persuasive strategies

Pathos: The name taps into customers' emotions, triggering feelings of luxury and elevated social status associated with the word "crown".

Speech acts

Representative: It operates as a representative speech act by explicitly stating the type of products available, indicating that the shop focuses on selling regal, high-quality furniture items suitable for royalty.

Politeness Strategies

Off-record: It delicately employs an off-record politeness strategy by hinting at the exceptional value and greatness of the furniture without explicitly stating that.

9) Moonlight

Persuasive strategies

Pathos: It appeals to customers' emotions, making them imagine a sense of beauty and comfort.

Speech acts

Representative: It describes the beauty of the products as moonlight.

Politeness strategies

Off-record: It gives a metaphorical description of the shop, comparing its products to moonlight, to leave hints to readers that the products are beautiful.

10) Wow fashion

Persuasive strategies

Pathos: It appeals to customers' emotions by creating a sense of beauty and stylish products.

Speech acts

Representative: It describes the products as fashionable.

Politeness strategies

Positive politeness strategies: intensify the interest of the readers by using an interjectional intensifier (wow).

11) Silvaro

Persuasive strategies

Pathos: It appeals to customers' sense of beauty

Speech acts

Representative: It describes the Jewellery that is sold in this shop.

Politeness strategies

Off-record: It gives hints, making readers infer that the products are made of silver.

12) She glow

Persuasive strategies

Pathos: It appeals to customers' sense of beauty and elegance.

Speech acts

Representative: It describes the appearance of a woman after wearing this product.

Politeness strategies

Positive politeness: It provides notice and attends to the reader's interests, making a customer feel good about herself by describing the customer's positive appearance.

13) Paris

Persuasive strategies

Ethos: It appeals to credibility by using the name of a foreign country that has a good reputation in terms of high product quality.

Speech acts

Representative: It informs customers that the products are brought from a foreign country.

Politeness strategies

Off-record: It gives hints, making the reader infer that the products have foreign quality.

14) Classy store

Persuasive strategies

Pathos: It appeals to customers' sense of uniqueness.

Speech acts

Representative: It describes the shop as high-class.

Politeness strategies

Off-record: It gives hints, making readers infer that the products are prestige and suitable for customers of high status.

15) Free

Persuasive strategies

Pathos: It appeals to customers' emotions by fulfilling their desire to save money and making them imagine the low price of the products.

Speech acts

Representative: It informs customers that the products have low prices.

Politeness strategies

Positive politeness: It represents a gift to the customers that demonstrates consideration for the customers' interests and desires. The name focuses on the benefit to the customers, emphasising that they can get the products without paying much more money.

16) Bilal phone

Persuasive strategies

Pathos: It appeals to customers' emotions, making them imagine that they can find exceptional phone-related goods or services that they want.

Speech acts

Representative: It informs customers about the nature of the shop, which specialises in phone-related products or services.

Politeness strategies

Off-record: the name "Bilal Phone" gives a hint and allows the readers to infer that the shop is named after an individual, possibly the owner or significant figure associated with the business. This personal touch can imply that the shopkeeper or other significant figure in the shop values its customers and provides personalised service.

17) Max home

Persuasive strategies

Pathos: It appeals to customers' sense of comfort.

Speech acts

Representative: It conveys a message that the shop focuses on home-related products or services.

Politeness strategies

Off-record: It gives hints and allows the reader to infer that the maximum size or quality of home-related products can be found in this shop.

18) Shopping shop**Persuasive strategies**

Pathos: It appeals to customers' emotions, triggering their desire to engage in a shopping atmosphere.

Speech acts

Representative: It describes the nature of the shop, which is related to shopping.

Politeness strategies

Off-records: It gives hints, using the familiar word "shopping" in the name in an attempt to invite the customers indirectly to have a shopping experience in the shop.

19) Hadi Baruudi**Persuasive strategies**

Ethos: It appeals to credibility, using the social identity to indicate the good reputation of the person associated with his surname.

Speech acts

Declaration: It declares that the shop relates to this identified person.

Politeness strategies

Positive politeness: The use of an in-group identity marker in the name (Baruudi) creates a sense of familiarity to make customers likely to visit this shop.

20) Perfumes and Cosmetics

Persuasive strategies

Pathos: It appeals to customers' emotions and triggers their desire to visit this shop to obtain these desirable products.

Speech acts

Representative: It informs customers about the nature of the shop, which specialises in perfumes and cosmetics.

Politeness strategies

Off-record: It gives hints, allowing the readers to infer that the shop has two sections (perfumes and cosmetics) to create a sense of uniqueness and capture customers' attention.

21) Magic stick

Persuasive strategies

Pathos: It appeals to customers' emotions, making them feel wonder and triggering their desire to explore the imaginative products that are offered in this shop.

Speech acts

Representative: It describes the nature of the shop that offers supernatural or magical products.

Politeness strategies

Off-record: It gives hints, allowing the reader to infer that the shop offers unusual products rarely found elsewhere.

22) Eat and go

Persuasive strategies

Pathos: It appeals to customers' sense of hunger, evoking their desire to eat food.

Speech acts

Directive: It expresses an invitation to customers to eat food in this restaurant and then go, using an imperative sentence.

Politeness strategies

Bald on record: It gives literal meaning in a direct manner to attract customers to visit this restaurant.

23) Modern

Persuasive strategies

Pathos: It appeals to customers who seek the latest trends in new products or services by creating a sense of contemporaneity and progress.

Speech acts

Representative: It describes the products offered as modern .

Politeness strategies

Off-record: It gives hints and allows the reader to infer that the shop adheres to providing products or services of high quality that meet modern standards.

24) Violet

Persuasive strategies

Pathos: It appeals to customers' sense of femininity and grace.

Speech acts

Representative: It describes the colour of the products as violet.

Politeness strategies

Off-record: It gives hints and allows the reader to infer that the products are suitable for women's tastes.

25) Plus one

Persuasive strategies

Pathos: It appeals to customers' sense of anticipation for the additional value that is offered in the shop.

Speech acts

Representative. It informs customers that the shop provides additional value; an extra item may be added or an additional service

Politeness strategies

Off-record: It gives a vague implication that the shop offers additional benefits without explicitly stating it, allowing the readers to interpret what that is according to their expectations.

26) City time

Persuasive strategies

Pathos: It appeals to customers' emotions, evoking their desire for time observation and organisation.

Speech acts

Representative: It informs customers that the shop focuses on time-related products.

Politeness strategies

Off-record: It gives hints and allows the readers to infer that the products can help them manage their time when doing activities in the city.

27) Outdoor community

Persuasive strategies

Pathos: It appeals to customers' emotions, evoking their feelings of inclusivity and the desire to be a part of a community that shares similar interests and passions.

Speech acts

Representative: It conveys a message that the products are suitable for outdoor pursuits, and the shop enhances the community atmosphere.

Politeness strategies

Off-record: It gives ambiguity by using an incomplete statement, which allows the reader to infer the intended meaning, which may be that the products offered are suitable for outdoor activities or that the shop opened for potential

customers from the community who have similar interests in the products despite their different backgrounds.

28) Harrayr from nature

Persuasive strategies

Pathos: It appeals to customers' sense of purity and harmony with nature.

Speech acts

Representative: It informs customers that the products are made from natural or organic elements.

Politeness strategies

Positive politeness: It seeks common ground by providing a unique brand name associated with nature to create a sense of connection with customers who value the natural world and a healthy lifestyle.

29) Girls beauty

Persuasive strategies

Pathos: It appeals to customers' sense of beauty and attractiveness

Speech acts

Representative: It informs customers that this shop cares about girls beauty.

Politeness strategies

Positive politeness: It provides notice and attends to the readers' interests. The use of the gender identity marker (girls) in the name aims to resonate with young women and make them feel good about themselves by expressing their beautiful appearance.

30) United sections

Persuasive strategies

Pathos: It appeals to customers' emotions, evoking a sense of order and convenience.

Speech acts

Representative: It informs customers that the products are organised into categories.

Politeness strategies

Off-record: It gives hints, allowing the readers to infer that the shop offers a wide range of product types that may satisfy different needs or preferences.

31) Four brothers fashion

Persuasive strategies

Pathos: It appeals to customers' sense of family affiliation

Speech acts

Representative: It informs customers that the products are fashionable and can be suitable for the brothers of one family.

Politeness strategies

Positive politeness strategies: Using an in-group identity marker (brothers) to attract the customers who belong to the same social group to visit this shop.

32) Baby shop

Persuasive strategies

Pathos: It appeals to customers' sense of innocence and warmth, evoking parents' desire to provide interest in their baby.

Speech acts

Representative: It informs customers that the shop offers products suitable for babies.

Politeness strategies

Positive politeness: It demonstrates consideration for the target customers' interests, creating a sense of empathy towards parents and their babies by claiming that the shop satisfies the requirements that they need for a newborn baby.

33) No diet here

Persuasive strategies

Pathos: It appeals to customers' emotions, creating a sense of eating pleasure without caring about the diet.

Speech acts

Declarative: It declares that the customers can't adhere to a particular diet in this restaurant as there is no focus on a restrictive eating system.

Politeness strategies

Negative politeness: It states a face-threatening act in the form of a general rule to provide redressive action and mitigate imposition.

34) Friday

Persuasive strategies

Pathos: It appeals to customers emotions, creating a sense of excitement, relaxation, and social connection associated with Friday.

Speech acts

Representative: It indicates that the shop has specific offers or events that are available on Friday.

Politeness strategies

Off-record: It gives hints that Friday is an exceptional day in this shop to convince customers to visit this shop with their family or friends to enhance their social relationships and get out of the working atmosphere.

35) Shadow fashion

Persuasive strategies

Pathos: It appeals to customers' emotions, evoking their desire to express individuality and self-image.

Speech acts

Representative: It conveys a message that the shop focuses on fashionable products that are distinct, uncommon, or trendy, which allows the customers to express their uniqueness.

Politeness strategies

Off-record: It gives hints and implies that the fashionable products offered in the shop reflect personal style without explicitly stating that, using the word "shadow".

36) Caring Pharmacy

Persuasive strategies

Pathos: It appeals to customers' emotions, creating a sense of empathy and comfort.

Ethos: It presents ethical value and implies a sense of trustworthiness by emphasising the shop's responsibility for the customer's health and well-being. The word "pharmacy" represents the professional identity of the shop, which implies that the shop adheres to professional standards in providing pharmaceutical products and services.

Speech acts

Representative: It informs customers that the pharmacy provides healthcare products and services.

Politeness strategies

Off-record: the name gives hints and implies that the pharmacy provides a high level of services to its customers and prioritises their needs and health without explicitly stating that.

37) New look

Persuasive strategies

Pathos: It appeals to customers who seek novelty and change, evoking their feelings of enthusiasm to break from the old and find something different.

Speech acts

Representative: It informs customers that the shop focuses on the latest trends in fashion choices that allow customers to change their appearance.

Politeness strategies

Off-record: the name gives hints and implies that the shop provides fashionable products that can help customers change their style and update their self-image without explicitly stating that.

38) Food time

Persuasive strategies

Pathos: It appeals to customers' emotions, evoking their feelings of hunger and anticipation for the food.

Speech acts

Representative: It informs customers that this shop focuses on providing meals and food-related services.

Politeness strategies

Off-record: It gives hints and implies that the shop offers different types of meals that are suitable for each time during the day, such as breakfast, lunch, and dinner, without explicitly stating that.

39) Rose

Persuasive strategies

Pathos: It appeals to customers' emotions, creating a sense of beauty and love.

Speech acts

Representative: It describes the beauty of the products offered in this shop.

Politeness strategies

Off-record: It gives hints, providing a metaphorical description of the shop that compares the beauty of its products with a rose to indirectly promote the goods.

40) Pizza house

Persuasive strategies

Pathos: It appeals to customers' sense of comfort, evoking their desire to enjoy their meal away from formality.

Speech acts

Representative: It informs customers that this shop provides pizza as a main meal.

Politeness strategies

Off-record: It gives hints, creating a sense of welcome. The word "house" in the name implies a welcome sign for potential customers.

4.2 Quantitative Analysis

The aim of quantitative analysis is to support the qualitative analysis and analyse the quantitative data to prove or reject the hypotheses mentioned in Chapter one. Quantitative analysis is divided into two sections. The first section consists of two parts based on a questionnaire. The first part deals with the analysis of social variables. The second part deals with examining participants' responses.

In order to compare the results and verify the hypothesis, two types of statistical tools are employed in this section. The first tool measures the frequency and percentage of each category of social variables and all responses of participants. The second tool, which is chi-square, is used to identify whether there are any statistically significant differences in the usage of English in shop names based on social variables. This statistical tool also determines if there are any significant variations among the responses of participants on a three-point Likert scale. The second section of quantitative analysis provides statistical

analysis in terms of frequencies and percentages that bolster the qualitative analysis of monolingual English names by measuring each strategy that appeared in shop names for persuasion using the formula presented in Chapter three.

4.2.1 Results and Discussion

The following are the results and discussions related to the research questions mentioned in Chapter one.

4.2.1.1 The First Question

This question focuses on the social variables that determine the variation in the use of English in shop names and the persuasive purposes behind this usage. In this vein, the Cross-tabulation technique was used to examine the relationship between frequent English usage and social variables. This technique is presented in tables 3, 4, and 5. In regard to persuasive purposes, tables 6 and 7 illustrate participants' responses.

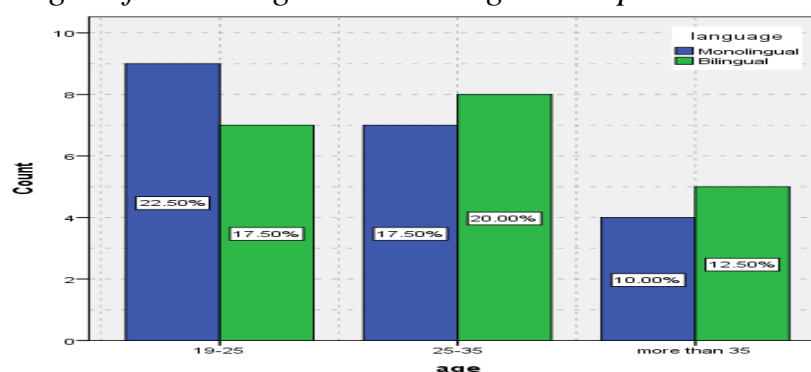
Table 3

Cross Tabulations: Frequencies, Percentages, and Chi-Square Test Analysis between Age and Shop Name Language

Age	count & %	language		Total
		Monolingual(English)	Bilingual(English-Arabic)	
19-25	Count	9	7	16
	Horizontally	56.3%	43.8%	100.0%
25-35	Count	7	8	15
	Horizontally	46.7%	53.3%	100.0%
more than 35	Count	4	5	9
	Horizontally	44.4%	55.6%	100.0%
Total	Count	20	20	40
Chi-Square	0.43	p.v	0.807	

Figure 3

Percentages of Monolingual and Bilingual Shop Names Based on Age



The results of Table 3 indicate that there are no statistically significant variations in the percentage of English usage based on the age of the shop owners, as the p-value of the test is more than 0.05. This means that monolingual English usage in shop names doesn't relate to the age of the shop owners.

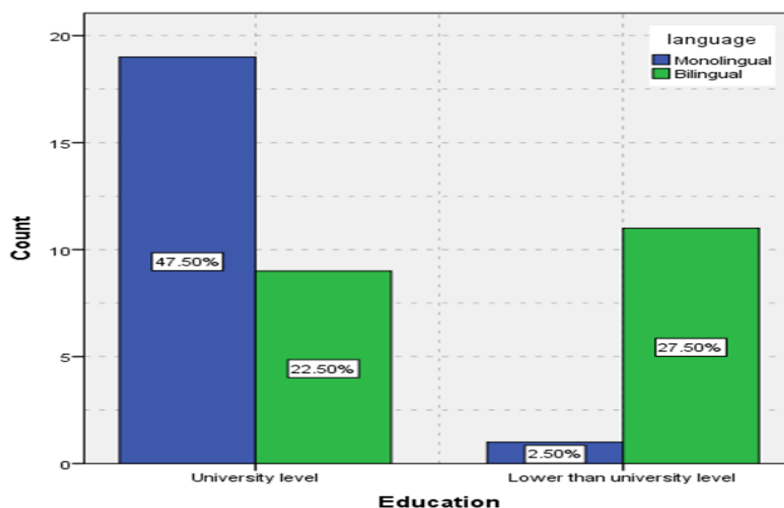
Table 4

Cross Tabulations: Frequencies, Percentages, and Chi-Square Test Analysis between Educational Level of Owner and Shop Name Language.

Education	count & %	language		Total
		Monolingual(English)	Bilingual(English-Arabic)	
University level	Count	19	9	28
	Horizontally	67.9%	32.1%	100.0%
Lower than university level	Count	1	11	12
	Horizontally	8.3%	91.7%	100.0%
Total	Count	20	20	40
Chi-Square	11.91	p.v	0.001	

Figure 4

Percentages of Monolingual and Bilingual Shop Names Based on Education



Results in Table 4 show that there are statistically significant differences in the percentage of English usage depending on the educational level of shop

owners since the p-value of the test is lower than 0.05. Monolingual English names are used more (67.9%) by shop owners with higher educational achievements than those who are less educated (8.3%), since this percentage is significantly lower than the percentage of those highly educated.

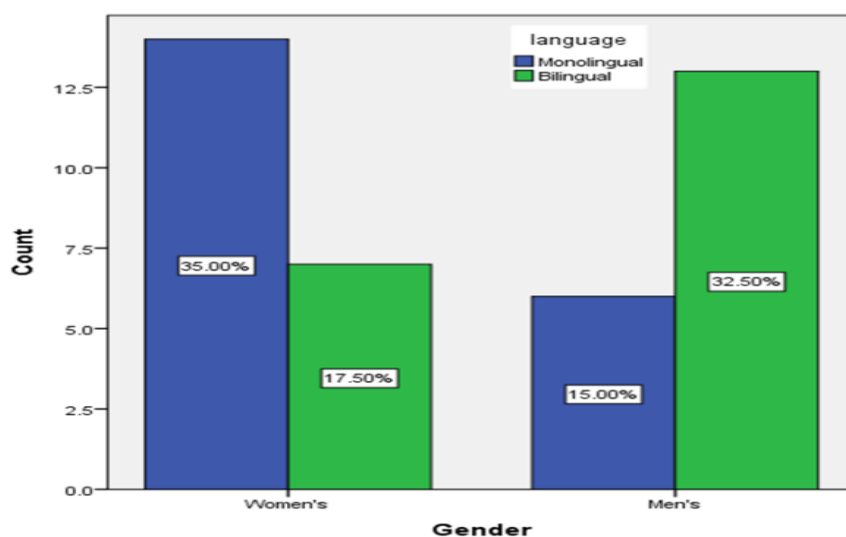
Table 5

Cross Tabulations: Frequencies, Percentages, and Chi-Square Test Analysis between Gender and Shop Name Language

Gender	count & %	language		Total
		Monolingual (English)	Bilingual(English-Arabic)	
Women's product shop	Count	14	7	21
	Horizontally	66.7%	33.3%	100.0%
Men's product shop	Count	6	13	19
	Horizontally	31.6%	68.4%	100.0%
Total	Count	20	20	40
Chi-Square	4.91	p.v	0.027	

Figure 5

Percentages of Monolingual and Bilingual Shop Names Based on the Gender of the Shop



The results in Table 5 show that there are statistically significant differences in the percentage of English usage according to the gender of the shops since the p-value of the test is lower than 0.05. Monolingual English names are used in women's product shops (66.7%), which is higher than the percentage of men's product shops (31.6%).

Table 6

Purposes Behind Using English in Shop Names

No.	Statement	agree	Disagree	Neutral
1-	persuade customers that the products are modern.	32	4	4
	%	80.00%	10.00%	10.00%
2-	convince customers that the products are prestigious and fashionable.	34	4	2
	%	85.00%	10.00%	5.00%
3-	satisfy the customers that the products have a high value	27	9	4
	%	67.50%	22.50%	10.00%
4-	persuade customers that the products have foreign quality.	32	5	3
	%	80.00%	12.50%	7.50%
5-	attract the attention of foreign customers.	27	5	8
	%	67.50%	12.50%	20.00%
6-	tempt customers because they have a good impression of this language.	20	6	14
	%	50.00%	15.00%	35.00%
7-	prompt high-economic-status customers.	29	8	3
	%	72.50%	20.00%	7.50%
8-	increase sales by attracting customers.	33	4	3
	%	82.50%	10.00%	7.50%
9-	motivate and encourage customers to purchase the products.	34	3	3
	%	85.00%	7.50%	7.50%
10-	relate customers to the global economy.	17	8	15
	%	42.50%	20.00%	37.50%
11-	discourage customers from buying the products.	0	34	6
	%	0.00%	85.00%	15.00%
12-	make customers admire the decoration.	22	14	4
	%	55.00%	35.00%	10.00%

Table 6 shows that there are many persuasive purposes behind English usage in naming shops. Persuading customers that the products are modern is

one of the purposes, as the majority of respondents, 80%, agreed with that and only 10% disagreed, whereas 10% were undecided. Similarly, convincing customers that the products are prestigious and fashionable is a purpose underlying English usage in naming shops, as 85% agreed with that, 10% disagreed, and 5% were neutral. In regard to the role of English in presenting a high value of products, 67.50% agreed that the use of English in naming shops is intended to satisfy the customers that the products have a high value, while 22.50% disagreed, and only 10% were undecided. Concerning the role of English in presenting the foreign quality of the products, the majority of respondents, 80%, agreed that English usage in naming shops persuades customers that the products have foreign quality. However, 12.50% disagreed, and only 10% were neutral. In regard to the attraction of foreign customers, 67.50% agreed that English usage in naming shops is intended to attract foreign customers attention, 12.50% disagreed, and 20% were undecided. In respect to the positive impression of English, 50% agreed that English usage in shop names is intended to tempt customers because they have a good impression of this language, whereas 15% disagreed and 35% were neutral. Table 6 shows that English is used to attract high-economic status customers, as the majority of respondents, 72.50%, agreed with that, while 20% disagreed, and only 7.50% were neutral. Also, English usage is intended to increase sales by attracting customers, as 82.50% agreed with that and only 10% disagreed, while 7.50% were neutral. Regarding the product sale, English usage in naming shops is intended to motivate and encourage customers to purchase the products, as the majority of respondents (85%) agreed with this statement, while only 7.50% disagreed and 7.50% were undecided. With respect to engaging in the global economy, 42.50% agreed that English usage is intended to relate customers to the global economy. However, 20% disagreed, and 37.50% were undecided. The statement that English usage in naming shops discourages customers from buying the products is disagreed with by 85% of respondents. While no

respondents agreed with this statement, only 15% were neutral. In respect to the decorative purposes, 55% agreed that English usage is intended to make customers admire the decoration, while 35% disagreed and only 10% were undecided.

Table 7

Chi-Square Test among Shop Owners' responses on a Three-Point Likert Scale

No.	Statement	agree	Disagree	Neutral	chi	p.v
1-	persuade customers that the products are modern.	32	4	4	39.20	0.00
	%	80.00%	10.00%	10.00%		
2-	convince customers that the products are prestigious and fashionable.	34	4	2	48.20	0.00
	%	85.00%	10.00%	5.00%		
3-	satisfy the customers that the products have a high value	27	9	4	21.95	0.00
	%	67.50%	22.50%	10.00%		
4-	persuade customers that the products have foreign quality.	32	5	3	39.35	0.00
	%	80.00%	12.50%	7.50%		
5-	attract the attention of foreign customers.	27	5	8	21.35	0.00
	%	67.50%	12.50%	20.00%		
6-	tempt customers because they have a good impression of this language.	20	6	14	7.40	0.03
	%	50.00%	15.00%	35.00%		
7-	prompt high-economic-status customers.	29	8	3	28.55	0.00
	%	72.50%	20.00%	7.50%		
8-	increase sales by attracting customers.	33	4	3	43.55	0.00
	%	82.50%	10.00%	7.50%		
9-	motivate and encourage customers to purchase the products.	34	3	3	48.05	0.00
	%	85.00%	7.50%	7.50%		
10-	relate customers to the global economy.	17	8	15	3.35	0.19
	%	42.50%	20.00%	37.50%		
11-	discourage customers from buying the products.	0	34	6	19.60	0.00
	%	0.00%	85.00%	15.00%		
12-	make customers admire the decoration.	22	14	4	12.20	0.00
	%	55.00%	35.00%	10.00%		

According to the results in Table 7, the p-value of the test is less than 0.05 for each one of the first nine statements. This means the percentages of responses to each statement on a three-point Likert scale vary in a statistically significant way. Since the majority of the respondents agreed with each one of these purposes, as clarified in Table 6, this indicates that these are significant purposes behind English usage in naming shops. The results in Table 7 show that the p-value of the test for the statement that English usage is intended to relate customers to the global economy is more than 0.05. This means that there are no statistically significant differences in the percentages of the responses to this statement. Therefore, this purpose isn't an important one that underlies English usage in naming shops in Karbala City. The table indicates that the p-value of the test for the statement that the use of English discourages customers from buying products is less than 0.05. This means that there are statistically significant differences in the percentages of the responses to this statement, and since the majority of the sample members did not agree with this statement as clarified in Table 6, this means that there is no unconvincing role for English usage in naming shops. In regard to the last statement, the results in Table 7 indicate that the p-value of the test for the last statement, which relates to the decorative purposes behind the use of English, is lower than 0.05. This means that there are statistically significant differences in the percentages of responses to this statement on a three-point Likert scale. Since the majority of respondents agreed with this statement, as shown in Table 6, this means that this purpose is a significant one that underlies the use of English in naming shops.

From the previously mentioned results, one can notice that the frequency of English naming depends on the shop owners' level of education and the gender of the shops. The justification that can be provided is that shop owners with high educational levels use monolingual English naming more frequently than owners with lower educational levels since they learn this language in

academic institutions and can use it more skillfully. Unexpectedly, monolingual English names were used more in women's product shops, so this might be related to attracting female customers, as they can be affected by modern and fashionable foreign names more than males. Furthermore, the use of English in naming shops is intended to achieve two main purposes of persuasion: commercial persuasive purposes and impressionistic persuasive purposes. Since achieving commercial advantages is the primary motivation for creating a business, the respondents indicated that commercial purposes include persuading customers to purchase the products and increasing sales by using English in naming shops to draw customers' attention and encourage them to buy.

These findings agree with El-Yassin and Mahadin's (1996) assertion that the purpose of shop signs is to promote the products and services offered by the businesses that exhibit them.

Regarding shop owners' attempts to link their shop names to the goods or services they provide, the respondents indicated that impressionistic purposes include persuading customers that the products are modern, valuable, prestigious, and of foreign quality. To reflect these impressions, they use English in shop names. Additionally, using English may have a positive impact on the customers and make them admire the decoration. These outcomes are in line with Ross's (1997) assertion that English usage draws attention and reflects a fashion.

4.2.1.2 The Second Question

This question focuses on persuasive strategies that are used in naming shops. To examine the results related to this question, frequency and percentage were used to calculate the occurrence of each strategy.

Table 8*Persuasive Strategies*

Persuasive strategies	Frequency	Percentage
Pathos	34	85%
Ethos	6	15%

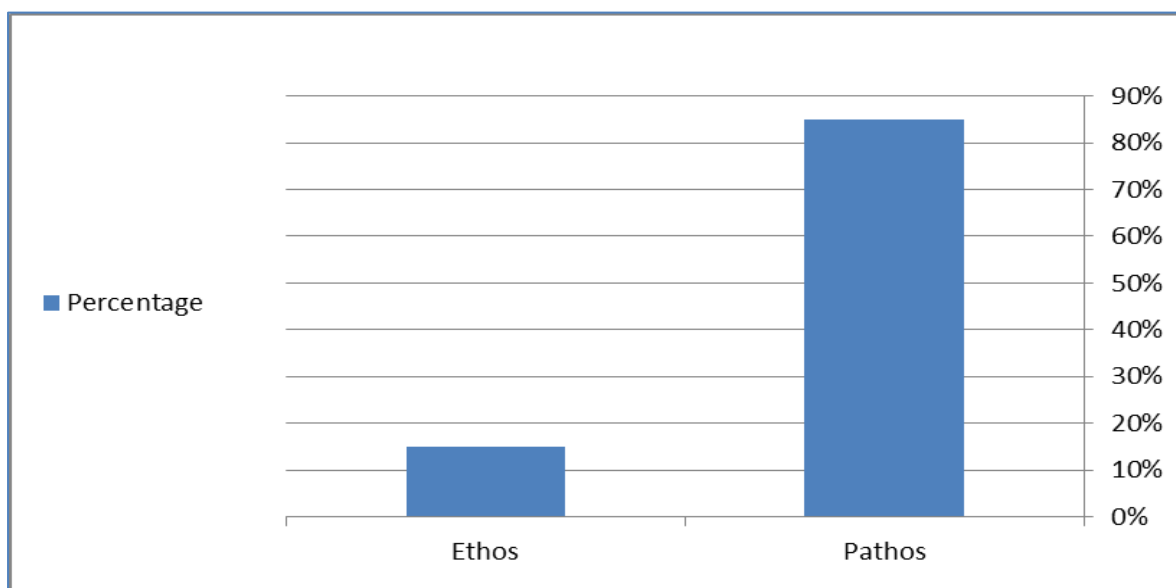
The results showed that the most common appeal used for persuasion was pathos, which comprised 85% of the data. It was employed to evoke customers' emotions or imaginations. For instance, name 3 formed pathos by appealing to customers' sense of superiority and high energy associated with the word "lava". In contrast, the use of ethos was rarely noticed in shop names, which comprised only 15% of the data. Ethos appeared in the names 1, 2, 4, 13, 19, and 36. To illustrate, ethos was recognised in 1, 13, and 4 by stating the name of the country or brand that has a good reputation in terms of quality and credibility, while in 2, ethos was formed by mentioning the professional degree of the person who provides services. Additionally, ethos was presented in names 19 and 36 as an ethical value by stating the social identity or the professional identity of the shop or the owner.

From the previously mentioned discussion, pathos was noticed as the main appeal used to persuade potential customers. This may be justified in two ways. On the one hand, pathos works as a means of connecting certain positive atmospheres or feelings with the goods to make them desirable. On the other hand, emotions and desires can have more effect than logic on the customer's buying decisions. In this regard, certain emotions or appeals frequently appeared during the analysis of persuasive strategies as a demonstration of pathos. These include comfort, beauty, uniqueness, modernity, and human senses. In regard to ethos, the low rate of its occurrence might be related to the

shop owners' beliefs that customers have little trust in marketing propaganda. With respect to logos, it wasn't used at all. The reason behind this might be related to the short text size of the name, and it is impossible to use logos in shop name medium as it requires using more words to form its appeal.

Figure 6

Percentages of Persuasive Strategies Used in Shop Names



4.2.1.3 The Third Question

This question focuses on the speech acts that are used for persuasion. In this regard, frequency and percentage were used to examine the results. These are reported in table 9 below.

Table 9

Speech Acts

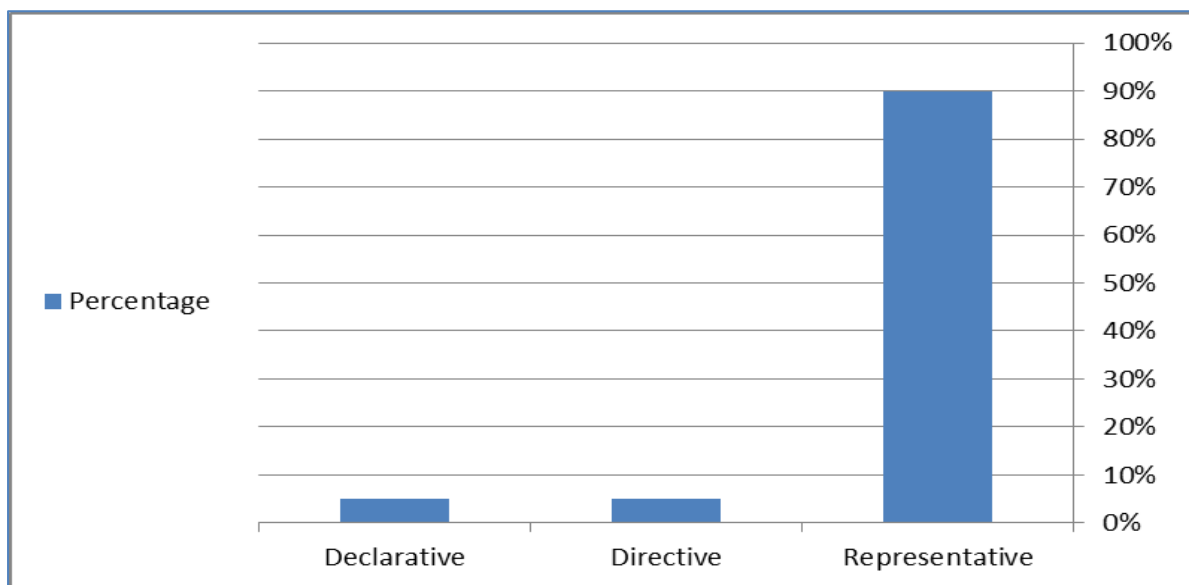
Speech acts	Frequency	Percentage
Representative	36	90%
Directive	2	5%
Declarative	2	5%

The results indicated that the most frequently used speech acts in shop names were representatives, with a percentage of 90%, while the least frequent were directives and declaratives, with a percentage of 5% for each of them. The use of representative speech acts was shown in the form of assertions or descriptions about the shop products or services. For instance, the name 1 (Italian decor) serves as an assertion about the design of the products. Regarding directives, they were used as a means of invitation to create a sense of welcome and familiarity. For instance, in the name 22 (eat and go), directives imply an invitation for customers to eat in the restaurant. Concerning declaratives, the main remark was that it included declarative statements that indirectly guide customers' behaviours or attitudes. To illustrate, in the name 33 (No diet here), declarative was presented as an indirect command given to customers to break their diet.

From the discussion of these results, the justification for the frequent usage of these speech acts can be illustrated as follows: On the one hand, the high percentage of representative acts indicates that shop owners use these names as a marketing method, providing customers with information or description about the shop goods or services and leaving them to choose without any imposition. On the other hand, the low percentage of declaratives and directives can be related to shop owners' preference to avoid insisting on customers and make them feel free to decide. In contrast, other speech acts, such as expressive and commissive, hadn't been used entirely. The reason behind this concerns shop owners' perspectives on which acts function more persuasively than others.

Figure 7

Percentages of Speech Acts Used in Shop Names



4.2.1.4 The Fourth Question

This question focuses on politeness strategies that are used in persuasion. The findings related to this question were measured in terms of frequency and percentage. These are reported in Table 10 below.

Table 10

Politeness Strategies

Politeness strategies	Frequency	Percentage
Off- record	28	70%
Positive politeness	9	22.5%
Bald on record	2	5%
Negative politeness	1	2.5%

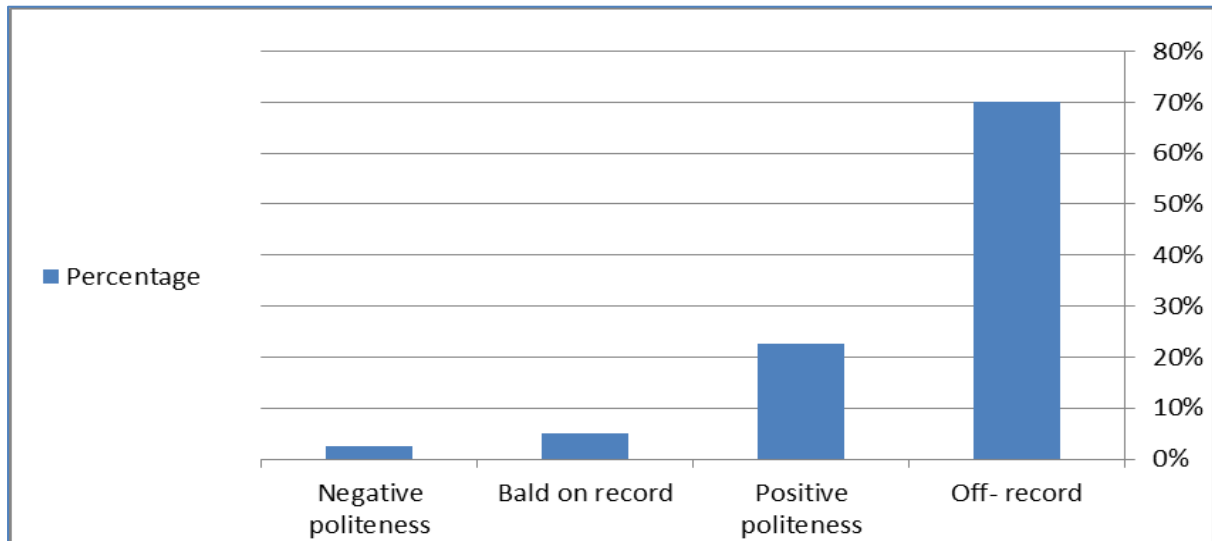
Off-record was the main politeness strategy that the shop owners relied upon in persuasion, which encompassed 70% of the data. For instance, name 25 gives hints that customers may gain an additional thing when purchasing something from the shop without explicitly stating what it is, leaving the interpretation to customers. The results showed that the second most common strategy was positive politeness, which encompassed 22.5% of the data. For instance, name 19 emphasises a sense of familiarity by stating one of the in-group identity markers as a demonstration of this shop owner's desire to be accepted by customers. In contrast, other politeness strategies, such as baldness on record or negative politeness, were rarely noticed. To illustrate, Bald on-record appeared in the name 4, 22, through means of conveying one literal meaning in a direct way in an attempt to affect customers' decisions. In regard to negative politeness, this strategy was used in the name 33, in which a face-threatening act was stated in the form of a general rule in an attempt to mitigate the imposition on potential customers.

From the above discussion, one can notice that off-record was the strategy that shop owners mostly used to influence potential customers. This can be justified as the shop owners prefer to get themselves out and leave customers to make inferences to understand what is meant as a strategy to avoid carrying out face-threatening acts. In the case of positive politeness, it was unexpected to find the frequent occurrence of this strategy as there is no close relationship between shop owners and customers, so the justification for its occurrence might be that shop owners want to minimise the gap with customers in an attempt to attract them by addressing their desire to be accepted. Regarding baldness on record, it was used as a way to have the maximum effect on customers' decisions. The low level of its occurrence may be related to shop owners preference to avoid awkwardness and discomfort. Concerning negative politeness, it was used as a strategy to address customers' desire not to be

imposed on them. The low level of appearance of this strategy might be related to shop owners' desire to avoid any potential misconceptions.

Figure 8

Percentages of Politeness Strategies Used in Shop Names



Chapter Five

Conclusions, Recommendations, and Suggestions for Further Research

5.1 Preliminary Remarks

This chapter encompasses three sections. The first section comprises the conclusions of the findings. The second section provides some recommendations based on the findings of the analysis. The third one offers some suggestions for future studies.

5.2 Conclusions

After discussing the findings qualitatively and quantitatively, several conclusions have been drawn. These can be illustrated as follows:

- 1.** Shop names act as short advertisements since they provide information or descriptions about the products or services offered in the shops in addition to referring to these shops.
- 2.** Most shop names contain strong emotional words and use figurative or implicit language. They function as catchy terms that attract customers' attention and trigger their desires.
- 3.** The tendency towards using monolingual English in shop names implies certain persuasive goals behind it since shop owners seek to attract customers to visit their shops. The two main purposes of persuasion that can be achieved through the use of English are commercial and impressionistic persuasive purposes. The former involves affecting customers' buying decisions, while the latter involves affecting customers' attitudes and desires. Shop owners indicated that the use of monolingual English names can provide customers with more confidence in making a buying decision and can also reflect a good impression about the products, such as foreign quality, modernity, and value.

4. Hypothesis No. 1 is proved: This means that monolingual English names are used as a persuasive strategy to reflect the value, foreign quality, and modernity of the products since most shop owners have significantly indicated these purposes behind English usage. The use of this strategy is affected by shop owners' level of education and the gender of the shops. This can be illustrated by the following findings:

a) Education: The educational level of the shop owners has a significant effect on using monolingual English names since this usage requires enough English knowledge. Therefore, those with fewer educational levels have a low rate of frequency in using monolingual English names, while those with higher educational levels use this strategy more frequently.

b) Gender of the shops: the gender of the shops has a significant impact on the use of monolingual English names. These names are frequently used in women's product shops more than in men's product shops since these fashionable foreign names can attract the attention of women customers more than men.

5. Hypothesis No. 2 is proved: Pathos and ethos are employed in shop names as persuasive strategies. The former works on linking certain emotions with products or services, while the latter enhances credibility. Pathos is used as the main strategy, while ethos occurs with low frequency since customers may be more affected by emotion than logic.

6. Hypothesis No. 3 is proved: certain types of speech acts are used to perform persuasive acts. Among these are assertive and directive. The former appear as the most common speech acts used in shop names, while the latter have a low rate of occurrence. The different levels of occurrence relate to shop owners' preferences or perspectives.

7. Hypothesis No. 4 is proved: Politeness strategies are used in shop names for persuasion. Among these are off-record and bald on record. In this regard, off-

record is the most common strategy that shop owners depend upon in persuading potential readers, while bald on record is rarely used since shop owners prefer to avoid imposition and promote the goods or services indirectly.

5.3 Recommendations

Since this study has investigated the main strategies used in shop names for persuasion, the recommendations are as follows:

1-Shop owners can gain an advantage from these strategies by applying them when naming their shops.

2- Business makers should be aware of these strategies and take them into consideration when planning to promote their goods.

3-Customers should be careful when making buying decisions and avoid depending totally on their emotional state without rational consideration.

4- Students or researchers are recommended to investigate other strategies used for persuasion, such as figures of speech, colours, and pictures.

5.4 Suggestions for Further Research

The following are suggested topics for further studies:

1-A corpus-stylistic study of the linguistic style of shop names.

2- A cognitive-semantic study of shop names.

3- A linguistic study of code-switching in bilingual shop names.

4- A critical discourse analysis of ideology in shop names language.

5-Ethnographic study of religious identity in Iraqi shop names.

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Appendices

Appendix A

The Questionnaire in English

Prepared by: Sarah Hussien

This questionnaire is designed to accomplish a thesis titled "Persuasive Strategies in Shop Names." The study is conducted by a student in the English Department at Kerbala University in order to get a master's degree. The aim of The questionnaire is to investigate the purposes underlying the owners' tendency towards using English in shop names. All the answers will be secretly kept and used only for academic objectives. Please point to the answer by putting (/) in the specified blank. Thank you for your cooperation.

Personal information	
Age:-----	
Level of education:	
<input type="checkbox"/> University level	<input type="checkbox"/> Lower than university level
Shop name language :	
<input type="checkbox"/> Monolingual (English)	<input type="checkbox"/> Bilingual (English – Arabic)
The gender of shop:	
<input type="checkbox"/> Men's product shop	<input type="checkbox"/> Women's product shop

The use of English in naming shops is intended to				
No.	Statement	Agree	Disagree	Neutral
1-	persuade customers that the products are modern.			
2-	convince customers that the products are prestigious and fashionable.			
3-	satisfy the customers that the products have a high value			
4-	Persuade the customers that the products have foreign quality.			
5-	attract the attention of foreign customers.			
6-	tempt customers because they have a good impression of this language.			
7-	prompt high-economic-status customers.			
8-	increase sales by attracting customers.			
9-	motivate and encourage customers to purchase the products.			
10-	relate customers to the global economy.			
11-	discourage customers from buying the products.			
12-	make customers admire the decoration.			

Appendix B

استبيان حول استخدام اللغة الانكليزية في تسمية المحلات

اعداد: سارة حسين

تم اعداد هذه الاستبانة من قبل طالبة في قسم اللغة الانكليزية بجامعة كربلاء وذلك لإتمام أطروحة ماجستير بعنوان "استراتيجيات الافناع في اسماء المحلات التجارية". الهدف من هذه الاستبانة هو الكشف عن الاغراض الكامنة وراء ميل أصحاب المحلات تجاه استخدام اللغة الانكليزية في اسماء المحلات. يجدر بالذكر أن جميع الاجابات ستكون سرية وسيتم استخدامها للأغراض الأكاديمية فقط. يرجى الإشارة إلى الإجابة بوضع علامة (/) وشكرا لكم على حسن تعاونكم معنا.

معلومات شخصية

العمر:-----

مستوى التعليم:

ثانوي جامعي

اللغة المستخدمة في اسم المحل:

انكليزي انكليزي - عربي

نوع المحل:

محل منتجات نسائية محل منتجات رجالية

استخدام اللغة الإنكليزية في تسمية المحلات يهدف الى

رقم	العبارة	اتفق	لا اتفق	لا اعلم
-1	إقناع الزبائن بأن المنتجات حديثة.			
-2	اقناع الزبائن ان المنتجات راقية وتطابق المواصفة.			
-3	إرضاء الزبائن بالقيمة العالية للمنتجات.			
-4	اقناع الزبائن أن المنتجات ذات جودة أجنبية.			
-5	جذب انتباه الزبائن الاجانب.			
-6	إغراء العملاء لأن لديهم انطباعًا جيدًا عن هذه اللغة.			
-7	استمالة الزبائن ذوي المكانة الاقتصادية العالية.			
-8	زيادة المبيعات من خلال جذب الزبائن.			
-9	تحفيز وتشجيع العملاء على شراء المنتجات.			
-10	جعل الزبائن مرتبطين بالاقتصاد العالمي.			
-11	عدم تشجيع الزبائن على شراء المنتجات.			
-12	جعل الزبائن معجبين بالديكور (الزينة).			

Appendix C

ShopNames and Locations

Shop names	Locations
Italian decor	Hay- Alhar
Dr.Ameer Alassady	Al-Sanater
Lava cafe	Hay- Alhussein
Love life, love Miniso	Al-Sanater
Top man	Al-Sanater
Kids Disney	Al-Sanater
Chocolate bar	Al-Sanater
Crown furniture	Hay- Alhar
Moonlight	Al-Sanater
Wow fashion	Al-Sanater
Silvaro	Al-Sanater
She glow	Al-Sanater
Paris	Al-Sanater
Classy store	Al-Sanater
Free	Al-Sanater
Bilal phone	Al-sanater
Max home	Hay -Aljamiya
Shopping shop	Hay- Aljamiya
Hadi Baruudi	Hay- Aljamiya

Perfumes and Cosmetics	Hay- Aljamiya
Magic stick	Hay- Aljamiya
Eat and go	Al-Sanater
Modern	Al-Sanater
Violet	Al-Sanater
Plus one	Hay- Alnaqeb
City time	Hay- Aljamiya
Outdoor community	Hay- Aljamiya
Harrayr from nature	Al-sanater
Girls beauty	Hay- Alhussein
United sections	Hay Aljamiya
Four brothers fashion	Al-sanater
Baby shop	Hay- Aljamiya
No diet here	Hay- Alhussein
Friday	Al-Sanater
Shadow fashion	Al-Sanater
Caring Pharmacy	Hay- Alsmoud
New look	Hay- Alhussein
Food time	Hay- Alhussein
Rose	Al-Sanater
Pizza house	Al-Sanater

Appendix D

خبراء تحكيم استمارة الاستبانة

الاختصاص	مكان العمل	اللقب العلمي	اسم الخبير	ت
علم اللغة	جامعة كربلاء/ كلية التربية للعلوم الإنسانية/ قسم اللغة الإنكليزية	استاذ	أ. د. مؤيد عمران جواد	1
علم اللغة	جامعة كربلاء/ كلية التربية للعلوم الإنسانية/ قسم اللغة الإنكليزية	استاذ	أ. د. حيدر خضير كاظم	2
علم اللغة	جامعة كربلاء/ كلية التربية للعلوم الإنسانية/ قسم اللغة الإنكليزية	استاذ مساعد	أ. م. د. توفيق مجيد احمد	3
علم اللغة	جامعة كربلاء/ كلية التربية للعلوم الإنسانية/ قسم اللغة الإنكليزية	استاذ مساعد	أ. م. د. نداء حسين فهمي	4
علم اللغة	جامعة كربلاء/ كلية التربية للعلوم الإنسانية/ قسم اللغة الإنكليزية	استاذ مساعد	أ. م. د. ريث زهير عبد الرحمن	5
علم اللغة	جامعة كربلاء/ كلية التربية للعلوم الإنسانية/ قسم اللغة الإنكليزية	استاذ مساعد	أ. م. د. وسن نوري فاضل	6

Questionnaire Arbitration Experts

No.	Experts' names	Rank	Affiliation	Expertise
1	Muayyad Omran Chiad	Prof.	University of Kerbala, College of Education for Human Sciences/ Department of English	Linguistics
2	Haider Kadhim Khudair	Prof.	University of Kerbala, College of Education for Human Sciences/ Department of English	Linguistics
3	Tawfeeq Majeed Ahmed	Asst. Prof.	University of Kerbala, College of Education for Human Sciences/ Department of English	Linguistics
4	Nida Hussain Fehmy	Asst. Prof.	University of Kerbala, College of Education for Human Sciences/ Department of English	Linguistics
5	Raith Zuhair Abid	Asst. Prof.	University of Kerbala, College of Education for Human Sciences/ Department of English	Linguistics
6	Wasan Nurie Fazel	Asst. Prof.	University of Kerbala, College of Education for Human Sciences/ Department of English	Linguistics

Appendix E

Questionnaire Reliability through Alpha Cronbach Coefficient

Domain	Number of Items	Alpha Cronbach
Purposes behind using English in shop names	12	0.87

الخلاصة

تبحث الدراسة الحالية استراتيجيات الإقناع المستخدمة في تسمية المحلات في مدينة كربلاء. وتحاول الدراسة توعية الناس بهذه الاستراتيجيات حيث أن استراتيجيات الإقناع في الوقت الحاضر هي من ضروريات مجال التسويق. لم يسبق ان تمت دراسة استراتيجيات الإقناع المستخدمة في أسماء المحلات التجارية بهذه الكيفية وخاصة من وجهة نظر تداولية اجتماعية. لذا تهدف الدراسة الحالية إلى سد هذه الفجوة بالكشف عن الاستراتيجيات الرئيسية المستخدمة للإقناع في أسماء المحلات. ومن خلال التركيز على اهداف البحث، تفترض الدراسة بان أسماء المحلات التجارية الإنجليزية أحادية اللغة تستخدم لإقناع العملاء بتمتع المنتجات بالحدثة والقيمة والجودة الأجنبية ويتأثر هذا الاستخدام بالمستوى التعليمي لأصحاب المحلات وجنس المحلات. وفيما يتعلق بالاستراتيجيات الأخرى، فإنها تفترض أن العاطفة والاخلاقيات تستخدم في أسماء المتاجر كاستراتيجيات مقنعة؛ وكذلك تُستخدم أفعال الكلام المؤكدة و الموجهة في أسماء المحلات كأفعال خطابية مقنعة؛ وأخيراً، يتم استخدام استراتيجيات التأدب المباشرة وغير المباشرة في أسماء المتاجر للإقناع. ولتحقيق أهداف هذه الدراسة تم اعتماد أنموذج انتقائي لتحليل البيانات. ويشتمل هذا الانموذج على أفعال الكلام لسيرل (1969)، واستراتيجيات الإقناع للوكاس (2009)، واستراتيجيات التأدب لبراون وليفنسون (1987)، ومتغيرات اجتماعية مختارة. وتقتصر الدراسة الحالية على 40 أسم محل تجاري مكتوب باللغة الانجليزية تم اختياره من وسط مدينة كربلاء كعينة لهذه الدراسة. وتضم عينة المشاركين 40 من أصحاب المحلات التجارية من وسط المدينة. تظهر نتائج التحليل النوعي والكمي للبيانات المجمع أن استخدام اللغة الإنجليزية فقط في أسماء المحلات التجارية ينطوي على اهداف أقناع معينة، وأن المتغيرات (التعليم، الجنس) لها تأثير كبير على هذا الاستخدام.

وفيما يتعلق باستراتيجيات الإقناع الأخرى، فللعاطفة تأثير واضح في أسماء المتاجر، بينما يكون أثر الاخلاقيات نادرا. كما يشير التحليل إلى أن التأكيدات هي أفعال الكلام الأكثر استخداما في أسماء المحلات، في حين ينخفض مستوى أفعال الارشاد. وبنفس الطريقة، يتم استخدام استراتيجيات التأديب غير المباشرة بمستوى عالٍ من التكرار على عكس الاستراتيجيات المباشرة حيث أن أصحاب المحلات يفضلون اقناع العملاء بشكل غير مباشر وعدم اجبارهم على اتخاذ قرارات الشراء.



جمهورية العراق
وزارة التعليم العالي والبحث العلمي
جامعة كربلاء
كلية التربية للعلوم الإنسانية
قسم اللغة الإنكليزية

دراسة تداولية اجتماعية لاستراتيجيات الإقناع في أسماء محلات مختارة في
مدينة كربلاء

رسالة قدمت

الى مجلس كلية التربية للعلوم الإنسانية / جامعة كربلاء / قسم اللغة الإنكليزية كجزء

من متطلبات نيل شهادة الماجستير في اللغة الإنكليزية / علم اللغة

الطالبة

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بإشراف

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