

A Morphological Analysis of Tourism Slogans การวิเคราะห์ระบบหน่วยคำในสโลแกนการท่องเที่ยว

Siwaporn Suvarnamani* Sompratana Ratanakul Boonjeera Chiravate
ศิวพร สุวรรณmani สมปรารถนา รัตนกุล บุญจรรยา ชีรวาทย์
Faculty of Arts, Silpakorn University, Thailand

Corresponding author*

e-mail: note173@yahoo.com

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คำสำคัญ: โครงสร้างคำ,
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Abstract

Objectives: Language plays a crucial role in media and advertising slogans. Catchy and memorable tourism slogans can promote destinations and help marketing information be accepted and remembered by customers. They also help create brand awareness, and improve brand image and brand recognition. Because of this, word selection and word formation are factors that lead to successful slogans. The purpose of this study was to examine the morphological operations of the content words (nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs) used in tourism slogans.

Methods: The data were collected from the website "database of advertising slogans" and the LancsBox program was used to classify the content words found into four parts of speech. After this, the researchers analyzed and categorized them into different word-formation processes. Finally, the results were recorded in Excel files to demonstrate the frequency of their occurrences.

Results: By employing Huddleston and Pullum's (2005) theoretical framework, the results showed that firstly, when comparing the occurrences of derivation and compounding among the four parts of speech, both processes appeared most frequently in the group of nouns. However, when comparing within the same word classes, the occurrences of derivation were higher than those of compounding in the groups of verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. For derivation by affixation, the occurrence of suffixation was the highest (46.30%). In addition, the top three prefixes found in this analysis were re-, de-, and ex-. In terms of suffixation, -ing was the noun suffix appearing most frequently (16.67%), with -al having the highest adjective-forming occurrence (15.63%). For derivation by non-affixation, noun to verb conversion was found most frequently (89.62%). In compounding terms, the compound words consisting of 2 bases were found most frequently (64.95%), and the structure (X + X) + X had the highest frequency (76.47%).

Application of this study: This study is beneficial to teachers teaching English for specific purposes (ESP) courses and can be used as a case study in linguistics courses. Furthermore, in terms of business and marketing, this study can provide useful information for copywriters and marketers whose main jobs are to create effective advertising slogans.

บทคัดย่อ

วัตถุประสงค์: ภาษามีบทบาทสำคัญในสื่อและสโลแกนโฆษณา สโลแกนการท่องเที่ยวที่ดึงดูดใจและจดจำได้ง่ายสามารถส่งเสริมจุดหมายปลายทาง และทำให้ข้อมูลข่าวสารทางการตลาดเกิดการตอบรับ และเป็นที่ยึดจำในกลุ่มของลูกค้านอกจากนั้น สโลแกนโฆษณายังช่วยสร้างการรับรู้ตราสินค้า และช่วยพัฒนาภาพลักษณ์ตราสินค้า และการรับรู้ตราสินค้าแบบมีสิ่งกระตุ้น เนื่องด้วยเหตุนี้ การเลือกใช้คำหรือสร้างคำจึงเป็นปัจจัยหนึ่งที่จะทำให้สโลแกนนั้นประสบความสำเร็จ วัตถุประสงค์ของการศึกษานี้ เพื่อตรวจสอบกระบวนการทางหน่วยคำของคำแสดงเนื้อหา ได้แก่ คำนาม คำกริยา คำคุณศัพท์ และคำกริยวิเศษณ์ที่ใช้ในสโลแกนการท่องเที่ยว

วิธีการศึกษา: รวบรวมข้อมูลจากเว็บไซต์ database of advertising slogans จากนั้นใช้โปรแกรม LancsBox ในการจำแนกคำแสดงเนื้อหาออกเป็น 4 กลุ่มตามหน้าที่ของคำ หลังจากนี้ผู้วิจัยวิเคราะห์และจัดประเภทคำแสดงเนื้อหาตามกระบวนการสร้างคำแบบต่าง ๆ ในขั้นตอนสุดท้าย ผลการวิเคราะห์ทั้งหมดจะถูกบันทึกลงในไฟล์เอกเซล เพื่อนำมานับจำนวนครั้งที่ปรากฏ

ผลการศึกษา: เมื่อใช้กรอบแนวคิดทฤษฎีของฮัดเดิลสตัน และพูลลัม (2005) มาวิเคราะห์กระบวนการทางหน่วยคำของคำแสดงเนื้อหาที่ใช้ในการสร้างสโลแกนการท่องเที่ยวพบว่า ประการแรก เมื่อเปรียบเทียบในส่วนของกระบวนการแปลงคำ และการประสมคำ ระหว่างหน้าที่ของคำทั้ง 4 ประเภท ทั้งสองกระบวนการพบมากที่สุดในกลุ่มของคำนาม อย่างไรก็ตาม เมื่อเปรียบเทียบทั้งสองกระบวนการในแต่ละประเภทหน้าที่ของคำ การแปลงคำจะพบได้บ่อยมากกว่าการประสมคำในกลุ่มของคำกริยา คำคุณศัพท์ และคำกริยวิเศษณ์ สำหรับการแปลงคำโดยใช้หน่วยคำเดิมนั้น พบการใช้หน่วยคำเดิมท้ายมาก

ที่สุด คิดเป็นร้อยละ 46.30 นอกจากนี้หน่วยคำเติมหน้าที่พบมากที่สุดสามอันดับแรก ได้แก่ re- de- และ ex- ในส่วนของหน่วยคำเติมท้าย (suffix) -ing คือหน่วยคำเติมท้ายที่เปลี่ยนฐานเป็นคำนามที่พบได้บ่อยที่สุด และสำหรับหน่วยคำที่เติมท้ายที่เปลี่ยนฐานเป็นคำคุณศัพท์นั้น พบว่า -al ปรากฏมากที่สุด คิดเป็นร้อยละ 15.63 ส่วนการแปลงคำโดยใช้หน่วยคำเติม พบว่าการเปลี่ยนหมวดคำ โดยเปลี่ยนจากคำนามเป็นคำกริยา ปรากฏมากที่สุดคิดเป็นร้อยละ 89.62 นอกจากนี้ในส่วนของการประสมคำ คำประสมจากฐาน 2 ฐาน พบมากที่สุด คิดเป็นร้อยละ 64.95 และโครงสร้าง (X + X) + X ปรากฏมากที่สุด คิดเป็นร้อยละ 76.47

การประยุกต์ใช้: การศึกษานี้เป็นประโยชน์ต่อผู้สอนรายวิชาภาษาอังกฤษเพื่อวัตถุประสงค์เฉพาะ (ESP) และสามารถใช้เป็นกรณีศึกษาในรายวิชาทางด้านภาษาศาสตร์ ยิ่งไปกว่านั้นในแง่ของธุรกิจและการตลาด การศึกษานี้ได้ให้ข้อมูลที่เป็นประโยชน์กับผู้เชี่ยวชาญด้านการเขียนคำโฆษณาและนักการตลาด ซึ่งเป็นกลุ่มบุคคลที่มีหน้าที่หลักในการสร้างสรรค์สโลแกนโฆษณาที่มีประสิทธิภาพ

Introduction

In languages, despite the multitude of words, some exhibit shared functional and structural traits, allowing them to be categorized into distinct groups known as word classes or lexical categories. Nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs constitute open classes, wherein new words can be readily incorporated. Conversely, prepositions and determiners form closed classes, barring the addition of new items. These closed classes primarily serve grammatical functions rather than conveying lexical content (Fromkin, 2001 : 35-36). Accordingly, open classes are often termed lexical content words, while closed classes are occasionally referred to as function words.

Structurally, words can be classified into two broad categories: simple (or non-complex) and complex (Katamba & Stonham, 1993 : 20). Simple words consist of a single morpheme, the smallest meaningful unit of a language, whereas complex words comprise multiple morphemes. How morphemes are combined to form complex words are governed by morphological operations, including affixation, conversion, blending, clipping and compounding (Huddleston & Pullum, 2005). These processes introduce variations in word structure, leading to the creation of an extensive lexicon rich in linguistic diversity.

Despite extensive research into the structure and meaning of words in various linguistic contexts, a notable gap exists in the study of words specifically used in tourism slogans. Putting word structure aside, most of the earlier studies in tourism slogans including Bochari (2011), Laosrirattanachai & Panyametheekul (2018), Giyatmi, Astuti, & Wijayava (2021), and Kachin (2022), focused on the pragmatics of tourism slogans. Addressing this gap, the present study aims to investigate the structure of the words used in tourism slogans. By analyzing the morphological operations of the words used in tourism slogans, this research seeks to provide a deeper understanding of language use in marketing contexts and contribute to practical marketing strategies.

Literature Review

According to Velykyte (2023), a slogan can make a brand stand out in a busy market, set it apart from competitors, and build recognition and loyalty. One of the main advantages of a slogan is that it can quickly and clearly convey what the brand is all about. A catchy and relevant slogan helps consumers connect a particular benefit, feature, or value with the brand. Likewise, Salehi, & Farahbakhsh (2014) pointed out that tourism slogans have been one of the most effective tools used to increase a market in the tourism industry. As tourism slogans are short, memorable phrases, they can be used to promote destinations and attract visitors. A great tourism slogan should capture the outstanding features of a

destination and inspire travelers to visit. Thus, it should be easy to remember and efficient in the usage of meaningful phrase which has an emotional pull, evoke feelings of excitement, adventure and relaxation.

Over the past few decades, tourism slogans have garnered significant attention from researchers. In 2011, 60 slogans from 55 locations around the world were examined by Bochari to identify the figures of speech and illocutionary acts. The research findings showed that there were 14 types of figures of speech, with alliteration and personification found the most frequently. The study also discussed the functions of figures of speech. Repetition and rhyme (e.g., alliteration and assonance) were said to enhance memorability, while personification, hyperbole, simile, and oxymoron contributed to attractiveness and imagination. The most prevalent illocutionary act was assertive, employed to highlight the states or characteristics of the locations.

Laosrirattanachai & Panyametheekul (2018), Giyatmi, Astuti, & Wijayava (2021), and Kachin (2022) also employed pragmatic theories in their analysis of tourism slogans. Laosrirattanachai & Panyametheekul (2018) analyzed 113 tourism slogans from various countries collected from touriststraveller.wordpress.com. The results indicated that conversational maxims play a crucial role in interpreting tourism slogans, with the majority involving conversational implicature. Consistent with Ge (2011), presuppositions were found to serve eight functions: conciseness, interest, enlargement, emphasis, euphemism, concealment, persuasion, and self-protection. The study also discussed that most tourism slogans serve as indirect invitations.

Similarly, Giyatmi, Astuti, & Wijayava (2021) tried to describe the types and functions of speech acts in tourism slogans in Indonesia. This research focused on the speech acts in tourism slogans. It belonged to descriptive qualitative research by focusing on the phenomena of tourism slogans in society. The data of the research were the tourism slogans of some cities in Indonesia found on the internet. The researchers found 31 items of tourism slogans of which there were four types of speech acts: representative, directive, commissive, and expressive. In addition to giving information about the history of the cities, the nicknames of the cities, hope or ideas of the cities, and the tourism slogans were used for asking, and promising. The findings showed that there was a tendency for the slogans to be very simple and that they came with an exclusive appeal by emphasizing the effective component in the message.

Regarding speech act types, Kachin's (2022) study focused on 34 tourism slogans from the Tourism Authority of Thailand. The results revealed that the slogans fell into four distinct categories: assertives, directives, expressives, and declaratives. Additionally, the slogans were grouped into four categories based on their meaning: "Proud of being Thai," "Domestic tourism can help promote our home country," "How to be a quality tourist," and "Tourism makes a happy life." The study discussed how these slogans reflect both individual and social values, serving as core values exhibited in the context of tourism promotion.

Lever & Abbas (2018), analyzed the slogans from 157 countries using semantic evaluation methods including rhetorical analysis, semiotics, and thematic reviews, applying McQuarrie & Mick's (1996) rhetorical figures framework. The primary rhetorical operation identified was repetition in the form of chimes. Destabilization operations included oppositions, paradoxes, similarities, puns, and metaphors, while salient substitution operations were claim extremity and hyperbole. The major themes were countries as human traits, metaphor and dramatic portrayals, individuality, concept of self, comparison/contrast with others, discovery, magic, and mystery. The researchers noted that the analyzed country slogans tend to be predominantly ambiguous.

Huadhom & Trakulkasemsuk (2017), on the other hand, examined 100 tourism slogans from touriststraveller.wordpress.com featuring a list of tourism slogans from countries around the world. The study focused on the syntactic structures in the levels of words, phrases, clauses, and sentences. It was found that noun phrases, particularly those with adjectives and head nouns (often country names), were most frequent. The researchers suggested that these noun

phrases engage readers effectively by providing concise, catchy, and memorable information, likely aiming to enhance the country's identity. Declarative sentences were the most common form, offering complete information and inviting readers' acceptance of the information. Imperative sentences were also prevalent, serving the function of giving commands.

In terms of content analysis, Khan (2014) studied the language of destination brand slogans in detail to further identify the emergence of the most frequently used themes as marketing art through word play. The analysis demonstrated that the majority of tourism slogans were created to give a promise of excitement, aiming to strike the tourists and emotional appeal. However, the study suggested that there was not always an association between a single popularity of the promotional slogan of a country and tourist arrivals. The analysis argued that tourist arrivals to a country resulted from a combination of several factors. Those included image, events, peace, stability and other possibilities, rather than the promotional slogan alone. The study suggested that destination countries pay attention to other possible methods of coining an appealing and memorable catchphrase in the form of a marketing slogan to create increased visibility amongst competitors.

Wongsathian (2020) analyzed word formation processes in 36 outdoor advertisements found on the main roads and in department stores in Bangkok. The results represent that slogans and brand names of particular goods, such as clothes, vehicles, and shoes are most frequently discovered on those outdoor advertisements. The study indicated that compounding (37.74%) was the word formation process found the most frequently in outdoor advertisements, followed by multiple processes (13.21%); blending and loanword (7.55%); derivation or affixation, clipping, and conversion (5.66%); back-formation and acronyms (3.77%); and creative respelling and inflection (1.89%), respectively.

In summary, while numerous studies have explored the various aspects of tourism slogans, few have specifically delved into the morphology of the words utilized within. This gap in research is notable, prompting the present study to fill this void by investigating the morphology of the words found in tourism slogans, drawing upon relevant theoretical concepts as outlined in the subsequent section.

Theoretical Concepts Related to the Present Study

1. Word and Word-Formation

In language, we often think of words as the fundamental units of meaning. However, if we take a closer look at words, we can break them down further into smaller units called *morphemes*. A morpheme is the smallest unit of meaning in a language. It is like a building block of words, carrying its own distinct meaning or grammatical function (Katamba & Stonham, 1993 : 20). Consider the word "happiness." Here, "happy" serves as a free morpheme, carrying its own independent meaning of joy or contentment. Meanwhile, the morpheme "ness" is a bound morpheme, as it cannot stand alone but rather modifies the meaning of "happy" to convey the state or quality of being happy. Similarly, let's examine the word "undo." In this case, "do" functions as a free morpheme, representing the action of performing something. Meanwhile, the morpheme "un-" is a bound morpheme, altering the meaning of "do" to indicate the reversal or negation of the action, giving "undo" the meaning of reversing a previous action.

Expanding upon the concept of morphemes, we can differentiate between simple (or non-complex) and complex words. *Simple words* characterized by the presence of one morpheme, serve as the basic, indivisible units of language. Simple words often represent concrete objects (like "cat" or "tree"), actions (like "run" or "jump"), qualities (like "big" or "happy"), or relationships (like "in" or "on"). In contrast, *complex words* are formed by combining multiple morphemes. These words may arise through *derivation*, where affixes (i.e., prefixes and suffixes) alter the meaning or grammatical

function of a base word (e.g., “happiness” derived from “happy” and “-ness”) (Fromkin, 2001 : 28), or through *compounding*, where two or more independent words combine to create a new lexical entity (e.g., “blackboard” formed by blending “black” and “board”).

Huddleston & Pullum (2005) outline a variety of morphological operations that are used to form complex words, as outlined briefly below.

1.1 Compounding

Compounding is forming a complex base from a combination of smaller bases—almost always two. Compound nouns, adjectives and verbs are illustrated below:

i NOUNS	railtrip / campground
ii ADJECTIVES	lifelong / free-spirited
iii VERBS	overlook / hangout

There is considerable variability of the semantic relationship within compound nouns. Bauer (2021 : 154) outlines various types of these semantic relationships, as presented in the table below.

Relationship	Example
NOUN 1 CAUSE NOUN 2	<i>withdrawal symptom</i>
NOUN 2 CAUSE NOUN 1	<i>tear gas</i>
NOUN 1 HAVE NOUN 2	<i>lemon peel</i>
NOUN 2 HAVE NOUN 1	<i>picture book</i>
NOUN 1 MAKE NOUN 2	<i>snowball</i>
NOUN 2 MAKE NOUN 1	<i>silkworm</i>
NOUN 2 USE NOUN 1	<i>steam iron</i>
NOUN 2 BE NOUN 1	<i>soldier ant</i>
NOUN 2 IS IN NOUN 1	<i>field mouse</i>
NOUN 2 IS FOR NOUN 1	<i>arms budget</i>
NOUN 2 IS FROM NOUN 1	<i>olive oil</i>
NOUN 2 IS ABOUT NOUN 1	<i>tax law</i>

Moreover, as noted by Katamba & Stonham (1993 : 320), phrasal verbs—comprising a verb along with a prepositional or adverbial particle—are also categorized as compounds. While certain phrasal verbs (e.g., *add up*, *bring in*, *come back*) convey literal meanings, others possess idiomatic interpretations (e.g., *break down*, *look into*, *put off*).

1.2 Derivation by Affixation

In affixation, a root or base is expanded by adding a prefix at the beginning of it or a suffix at the end. The main effect of affixation is to change the part of speech of the root—to form a noun from an adjective or verb, to form a verb from a noun or adjective, and so on. This can be divided into two main types: category-changing affixes and category-preserving affixes:

	Category-Changing	Category-Preserving
i PREFIX	<u>be</u> labor / <u>en</u> large	<u>un</u> able / <u>re</u> arrange
ii SUFFIX	quiet <u>ness</u> / adapt <u>able</u>	redd <u>ish</u> / kingd <u>om</u>

1.3 Derivation by Non-Affixation

1.3.1 Conversion

The verb *socialize* is formed by adding the suffix *-ize* at the end of the word *social*; however, the verb *access* (as in *Most people use their phones to access the internet.*) is formed from the noun *access* without any changing at all. This is called *conversion*: a type of word formation process in which a word is assigned to a new word class or part of speech without any change in form. The main types are illustrated in the table below.

	Primary Use	Conversion
i NOUN TO VERB	You will be contacted by <u>mail</u> . (N)	She <u>mailed</u> (V) the letter last week.
ii VERB TO NOUN	I <u>tried</u> (V) to open the window.	It's worth a <u>try</u> . (N)
iii ADJECTIVE TO NOUN	She has a very <u>individual</u> (ADJ) writing style.	I'm an <u>individual</u> . (N)
iv ADJECTIVE TO VERB	The room was <u>empty</u> (ADJ) of furniture.	It's your turn to <u>empty</u> (V) the trash.
v VERB TO ADJECTIVE	The show <u>amazed</u> (V) me.	It's an <u>amazing</u> (ADJ) show.

1.3.2 Back-Formation

It is opposite to affixation because a derived word is formed by removing an affix from a base rather than by adding one. Although facts about the history of English is not the main focus in this book, this is one historical process that is worth noting.

A clear example is the verb *self-destruct*. It was formed by dropping the *-ion* suffix from the noun *self-destruction*. Notice that *destroy* is the verb which is related to *destruction*, not **destruct*. The verb *self-destruct* appeared in the language after the noun, not the other way round. In a nutshell, back-formation is a word formation process in which prefixes or suffixes are removed from existing words. This can also be referred to as back-derivation.

1.3.3 Clipping

Clipping is the process of forming a new word by dropping part of a base (sometimes with a change in spelling for the remaining part), as in these examples:

Full Form	examination	doctor	airplane	parachute	influenza
Clipping	exam	doc	plane	chute	flu

For *exam* and *doc*, the beginning of the original words are retained; for *plane* and *chute*, the final parts of the existing words are retained; and in *flu* both the beginning and the ending of the original word are lost, leaving a middle syllable.

1.3.4 Blending

Blending is a type of word formation which is comparable to compounding; however, the difference is that in this process, two or more words are merged into one so that the blended parts are either clipped or partially overlap. Examples are given below:

Source	Blend
<u>stay</u> <u>vacation</u>	staycation
<u>documentary</u> <u>drama</u>	docudrama
<u>blizzard</u> <u>disaster</u>	blizzaster
<u>motor</u> <u>hotel</u>	motel

In *staycation*, the beginning of the second base (the *va* of *vacation*) is lost; in *docudrama*, the end of the first base (the *mentary* of *documentary*) is lost. In the others, both bases lose parts.

1.3.5 Initialism

In initialism, bases are created from the initial letters of a sequence of words (or, in a few cases the names of the letters of parts of words). There are two subtypes: an *acronym* uses the first letter of each word to create a new and pronounceable word and an *abbreviation* is pronounced simply by uttering final word-formation process.

i ACRONYM	NASA (<u>N</u> ational <u>A</u> eronautics and <u>S</u> pace <u>A</u> dministration) UNESCO (<u>U</u> nited <u>N</u> ations <u>E</u> ducational, <u>S</u> cientific, and <u>C</u> ultural <u>O</u> rganization)
ii ABBREVIATION	QA (<u>Q</u> uality <u>A</u> ssurance) CEO (<u>C</u> hief <u>E</u> xecutive <u>O</u> fficer) MBA (<u>M</u> aster of <u>B</u> usiness <u>A</u> dministration) NBA (<u>N</u> ational <u>B</u> asketball <u>A</u> ssociation)

In summary, by incorporating pertinent theoretical concepts, this section has laid the groundwork for the current study’s exploration of the morphological operations (i.e., word-formation processes) of the words used in tourism slogans.

Research Methods

1. Research Objectives

Focusing on the lexical content words (nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs) used in tourism slogans, the present study aims to determine the word-formation processes of the words used in tourism slogans.

2. Data Collection

Data for the analysis came from the website “database of advertising slogans” (Textart, 2024), consisting of 465 slogans, as demonstrated according to their categories in the following table.

Category	Coach travel	Train travel	Camping	Cruise	Hostel	Hotel	Motel	Resort
Number	25	16	83	83	45	79	52	82

The database of advertising slogans is a collection of advertising slogans from private persons, companies, and owners of trademarks. It was used in the study of Strutton & Roswinanto (2014), which has been cited by several studies, including Silveira et al. (2018), Zhang et al. (2017), and Kraak et al. (2023).

3. Data Analysis

The data analysis involved the use of *LancsBox* to classify the content words found in the tourism slogans into four parts of speech (nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs). Following this, to identify the target morphological operations, manual coding was conducted by the researchers and independently evaluated by three experts serving as inter-raters. Subsequently, the target morphological operations were recorded in Excel files to demonstrate the frequency of occurrences.

Results and Discussion

This section presents and discusses the morphological operations of the words used in tourism slogans. It is divided into three main parts. The first part presents the occurrences of the two major word-formation processes: derivation and compounding. The second part provides the data about different types of derivation (i.e., by affixation and by non-affixation). Finally, the classification of compound words according to the number of their roots and their structures is illustrated.

1. Word-Formation Processes

Firstly, the content words used in tourism slogans were classified into the four main parts of speech (nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs), then based on the Huddleston and Pullum's theoretical framework, in each part of speech, they were categorized into the major word-formation processes of derivation and compounding, as shown in Table 1. The percentages of derivation and compounding in each part of speech are summarized in Figure 1.

Table 1 Word-Formation Processes

Example		Noun		Verb		Adjective		Adverb	
		n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Derivation	depart / motel / heavenly / sleepy / truly	72	42.60	21	61.76	63	81.82	6	100.00
Compounding	railtrip / warehouse / seaside / world	97	57.40	13	38.24	14	18.18	0	0.00
	wide / hangout								

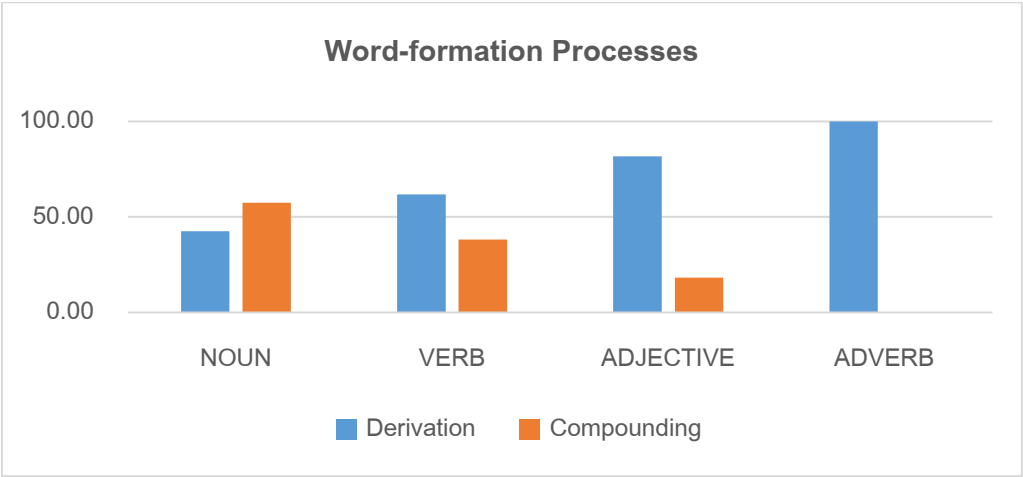


Figure 1 The Percentages of Derivation and Compounding in Each Part of Speech
(Source: Suvarnamani, Ratanakul, & Chiravate, 2024a)

The results show that when comparing the occurrences of derivation and compounding among the four parts of speech, both processes were most frequently found in the group of nouns (72 and 97, respectively). However, when comparing in each part of speech separately, the occurrences of derivation were higher than those of compounding in the groups of verbs (21), adjectives (63), and adverbs (6).

This is similar to Wongsathian's (2020) results in her study about the word-formation processes in Thai outdoor advertisements. The results indicated that new words were mostly created by compounding which was the most frequently used of word formation processes. This is in accordance with the research findings of Vörös (2010), who found compounding is proven to be very productive in creating nouns. It is often used in advertising slogans when trying to

draw the attention to a particular advertisement. Interesting compound nouns, often modifying other lexical items, have the ability to shorten the slogans and make the advertisements much more efficient and economical. This important quality is beneficial to the clients of advertising agencies who have to be concerned about budgetary limitations. However, many of these could be perceived as adjectives because they operated as premodifiers of other nouns. For example, in this study, the phrase 'rail tour' in the compound noun 'rail tour operator' could be perceived as a compound adjective to modify the head word 'operator'. This is also consistent with the research findings of Pookhao & Timyam (2012), who found that among the six word-formation processes (compounding, affixation, blending, layering, abbreviation and multiple processes), compounding and affixation were the most common processes used to form new words in female cosmetic advertisements in the selected magazines. Furthermore, this can be supported by the suggestion of Lehrer (2007); compounding and affixation are the processes of making words longer than the original ones. There are two main reasons why these processes were frequently employed to form new words in these sources. The first reason is that these processes add a word or an affix which carries additional meaning to the original words so as to clarify or extend their meanings and to completely describe the qualification of the advertised products. The second reason is that the new words created by these processes can be easily understood and their meanings recognized. Customers can identify or assume qualities of an advertised product from the appearance of the word itself.

2. Derivation by Affixation and Non-Affixation

As for derivation, a distinction can be drawn between derivation by affixation and derivation by non-affixation. The derivation by affixation comprises prefixation, suffixation and prefixation & suffixation. The occurrence of suffixation was the highest (46.30%), followed by both prefixation and suffixation (37.96%) and prefixation (15.74%), respectively, as shown in Table 2 and Figure 2.

Table 2 Derivation by Affixation

	Example	n	%
Prefixation	<u>expand</u> / <u>surround</u> / <u>apart</u> / <u>discover</u> / <u>deserve</u>	17	15.74
Suffixation	<u>action</u> / <u>rider</u> / <u>operator</u> / <u>personal</u> / <u>broaden</u>	50	46.30
Prefixation & Suffixation	<u>informal</u> / <u>unforgettable</u> / <u>unmatched</u> / <u>intercontinental</u> / <u>discovery</u>	41	37.96

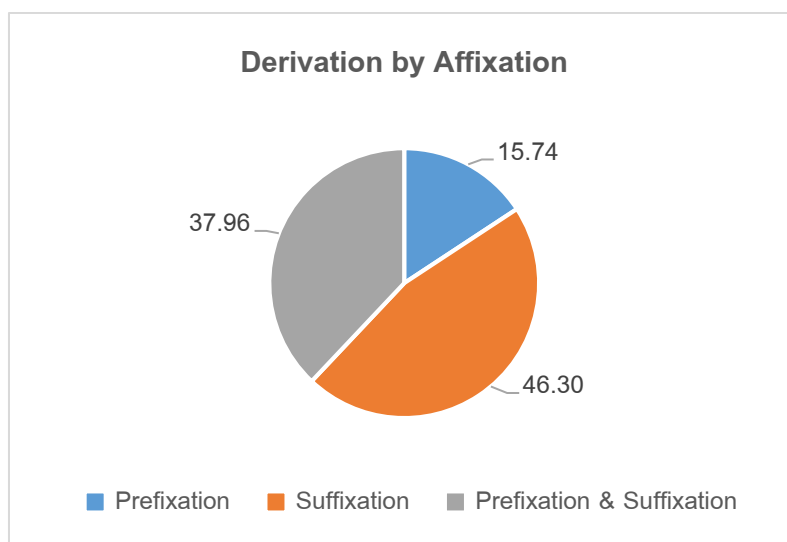


Figure 2 Types of Affixations and Their Percentages

(Source: Suvarnamani, Ratanakul, & Chiravate, 2024b)

As for prefixation, the prefixes which were found most frequently in this study are *re-* (15.25%), *de-* (10.17) and *ex-* (10.17), respectively. This is demonstrated in Table 3 and Figure 3.

Table 3 Prefixation

Prefix	Example	n	%
re-	rediscover / refresh / return / rejuvenate / redefined	9	15.25
de-	dedicate / depart / deserve / design / destination / departure	6	10.17
ex-	exceptional / expand / explore / excellence / expectation / exactly	6	10.17
Others	informal / discover / enjoy / overlook / afloat / comfort	38	64.41

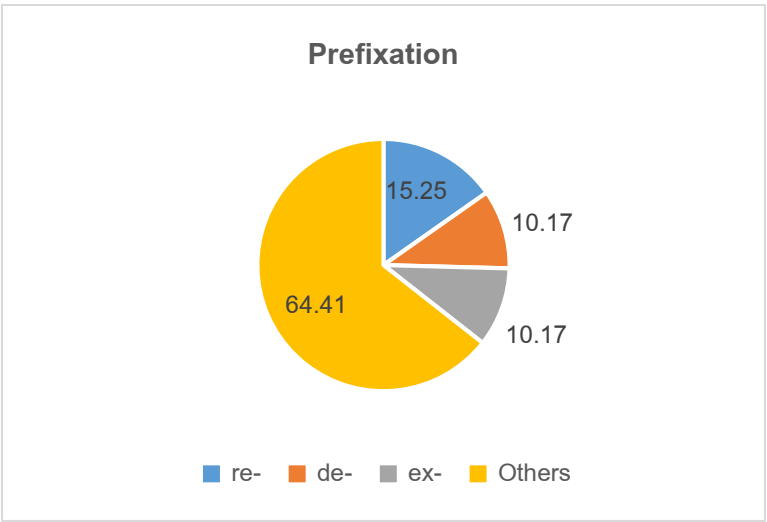


Figure 3 The Percentages of Most Common Prefixes
(Source: Suvarnamani, Ratanakul, & Chiravate, 2024c)

For suffixation, *-ing* was the noun suffix appearing the most (16.67%) in this analysis, and for adjective-forming, *-al* had the highest occurrence (15.63%). For verb-forming, the number of verbal suffixes was rather low. There were only two different endings: *-en* and *-ate*. Likewise, there was only one adverb suffix *-ly*, as shown in Table 4 and Figure 4.1 and 4.2.

Table 4 Suffixation

Suffix		Example	n	%
Noun-forming	-ing	camping / cruising / living / staying / ending	12	16.67
	-tion / -ation	relaxation / destination / civilization / action / collection	11	15.28
	-er	camper / traveler / stranger / skier / boarder	10	13.89
	Others	safety / punctuality / adventure / happiness / freedom / enjoyment	39	54.16
Verb-forming	-en	broaden	1	50.00
	-ate	rejuvenate	1	50.00
Adjective-forming	-al	informal / exceptional / global / personal / emotional	10	15.63
	-ed	relaxed / unmatched / inspired / addicted / redefined	9	14.06
	-est	neatest / finest / greatest / cleanest / quietest	8	12.50
	Others	inspiring / healthy / luxurious / peaceful / affordable	37	57.81
Adverb-forming	-ly	exactly / completely / perfectly / brilliantly / truly / simply	6	100

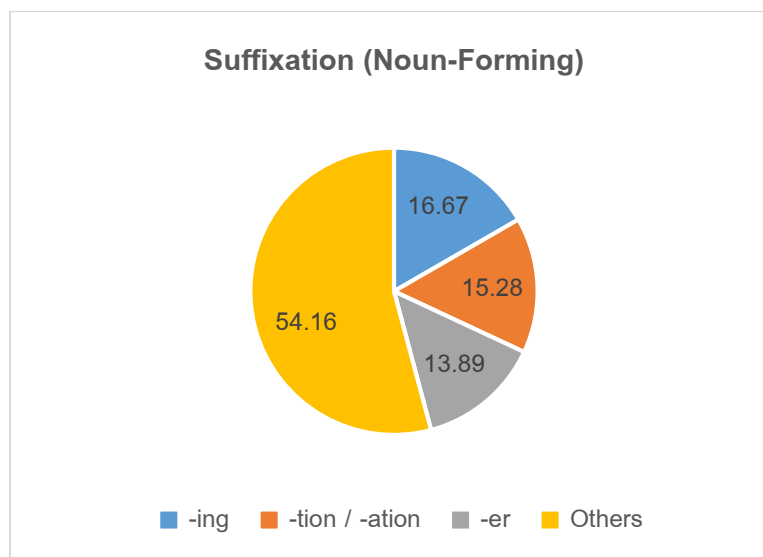


Figure 4.1 The Percentages of Most Common Noun-Forming Suffixes
(Source: Suvarnamani, Ratanakul, & Chiravate, 2024d)

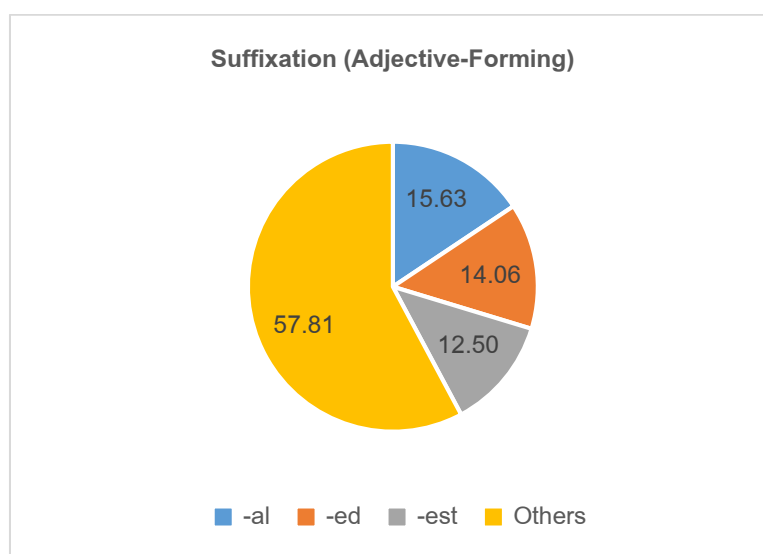


Figure 4.2 The Percentages of Most Common Adjective-Forming Suffixes
(Source: Suvarnamani, Ratanakul, & Chiravate, 2024e)

Affixation plays a significant role in enhancing the memorability of advertising slogans by creating catchy, impactful phrases that resonate with consumers. The use of prefixes and suffixes allows advertisers to modify existing words, thereby crafting slogans that are not only memorable but also convey a deeper meaning (Voros, 2010). For example, from this study, the prefix "re-" in "*Rediscover the joy of camping*" adds a layer of meaning, suggesting a return to or renewal of a positive experience. This use of affixation creates a more nuanced message than simply "Discover the joy of camping" would convey. It implies that the audience may have previously enjoyed camping but has perhaps forgotten or neglected this activity, inviting them to rekindle that enjoyment. Similarly, the suffix "-est" in slogans like "*Australia's highest resort*" and "*The greatest snow on Earth*" serves as a superlative marker, differentiating destinations and appealing to tourists' aspirations for exceptional experiences (Smith, 2015). These affixation strategies not only make slogans more memorable but also efficiently convey complex ideas of superiority and uniqueness, crucial in tourism marketing (Johnson, 2018).

As for non-affixation process, there were 95 occurrences (89.62%) of noun to verb conversion, and there were 11 occurrences (10.38%) of adjective to noun conversion. Initialism accounted for 50% of the other derivations by non-affixation. This is demonstrated in Table 5 and Figure 5.1 and 5.2.

Table 5 Derivation by Non-Affixation

Word-formation process	Example	Total occurrence	%
Conversion	NOUN TO VERB	Travel / need / tour / ride / experience	95
	ADJECTIVE TO NOUN	fun / open / professional / individual / secret	11
Others	Backformation	depart (departure) / intimate (intimation)	2
	Clipping	biz (business)	1
	Blending	motel / hostel / bizcation	3
	Initialism	KOA / RV resort / YHA / BC adventure / Hope BC / the UK	6

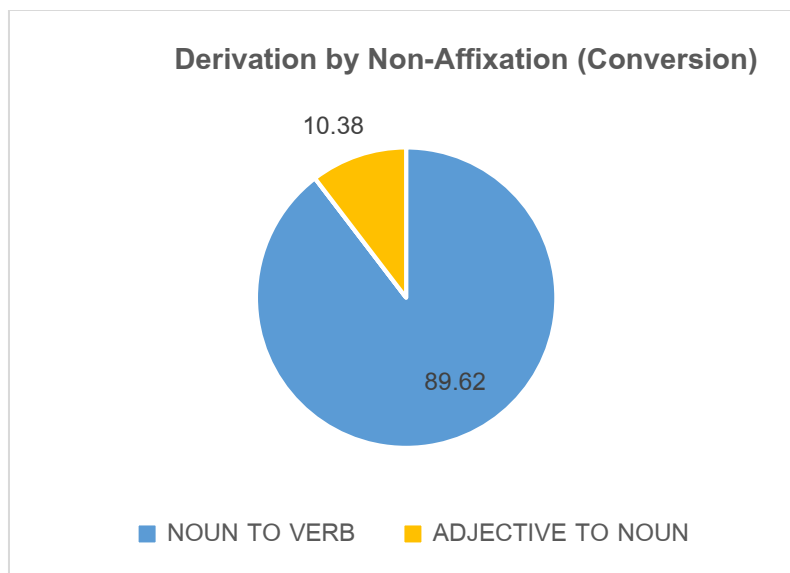


Figure 5.1 The Percentages of Each Type of Conversion
(Source: Suvarnamani, Ratanakul, & Chiravate, 2024f)

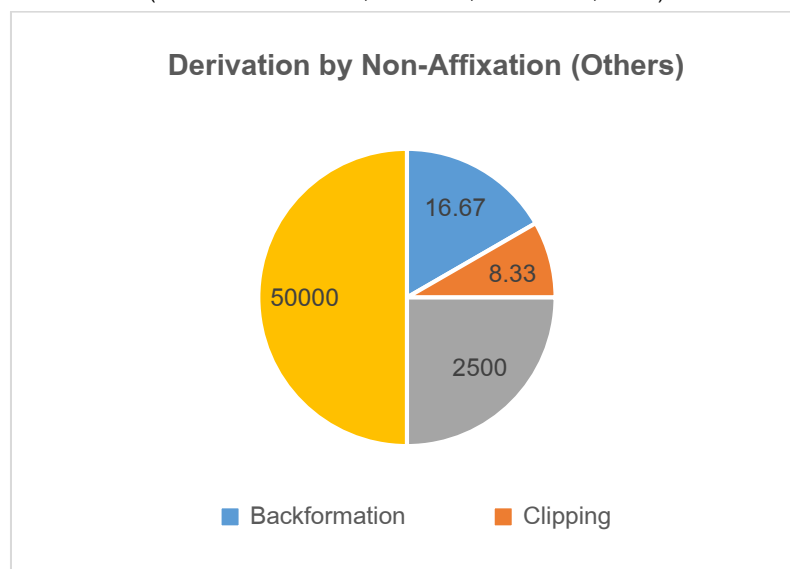


Figure 5.2 The Percentages of Other Word-Formation Processes
(Source: Suvarnamani, Ratanakul, & Chiravate, 2024g)

According to Huddleston (2002), regarding advertising, conversion (sometimes referred to as zero-derivation) offers significant creative potential. For example, when copywriters want new eye-catching words for their slogans, there is nothing easier than adding articles in front of the already established verbs or adjectives and thus creating new nouns or, conversely, using nouns or adjectives in the positions of predicates. These are the most common types of conversion. This characteristic gives a copywriter a unique opportunity to incorporate the name of the product (or even the company) into the slogan of an advertisement in a very creative way. For example, *KOA'mazing'*, as found in the data, the writer converts the name of the company into a part of the adjective 'amazing'. It strongly suggests that this company will provide amazing services and experiences for their customers. Another interesting example found was *Putting New into Zealand*. This slogan changes the adjective 'New' in the country name of 'New Zealand' into a noun, acting as an object of the gerund 'Putting'. This can convey that the company will make their clients gain new and exciting experience while traveling in this country.

In terms of initialism, Huddleston (2002) adds that a copywriter who works on a new slogan is usually limited by space requirements and thus he/she needs short and concise expressions containing as much information as possible, which makes abbreviations an important part of the advertising vocabulary. In addition, the companies whose names are in the form of abbreviations can put their proper or brand names into the slogans and this can be a part of creating brand awareness.

3. Compounding

A compound word is a series of two or more words that functions as a single word. Using compound words in any kinds of writing can make them more exciting, clearer and more fun. As shown in Table 6 and Figure 6 below, compound words consisting of 2 bases were found the most frequently (64.95%). There were also 29 occurrences of the compound words consisting of 3 bases (29.90%) and 5 occurrences of compound words consisting of 4 bases (5.15%).

Table 6 Compounding

	Example	n	%
consisting of 2 bases	group travel / railtrip / rail journey / snow day / steamboat	63	64.95
consisting of 3 bases	rail tour operator / tent camping enthusiasts / old world charm / family atmosphere motel / yacht cruise experience	29	29.90
consisting of 4 bases	local coach holiday people / family mobile home holiday / family atmosphere campground / one stop cruise shop / five-star sleeping experience	5	5.15

When it comes to the form of compounds, Quirk (1985) points out that typical English compounds usually consist of two, however internally complex, bases of any of the word classes. According to Bauer (1983), the substantially greater part of English compounds are nouns, which is even truer when it comes to lexical items consisting of more than two bases. On the other hand, these nominal compounds often modify other nouns, in which case they might be referred to as adjectival compounds. They are particularly found in advertising. Leech (1966) agrees with this by saying that perhaps the most outstanding characteristic of advertising language to a casual reader or listener is an abundance and variety of adjectival compounds. He also stresses that there is another important quality that makes compounding so popular among copywriters, that is transparency—the quality of being easy to perceive. As Booij (2012) explains, “when a new compound is formed, we already know the meaning of its constituents, and the only task we face is to find out about the semantic relation between the two parts.” In addition, there are various structural patterns of the compound words commonly used in the tourism slogans in this study. Based on Table 7 and Figure 6 below, there were two structures of 3-base compounds, $(X + X) + X$ and $X + (X + X)$, and two structures of 4-base compound words: $(X+X) (X+X)$ and $(X+((X+X) +X))$. The structure $(X + X) + X$ had the highest frequency (76.47%).

Table 7 Structures of Compound

	Example	n	%
(X + X) + X	motorcoach travel / rail tour operator / tailor-made holiday / Eastern Shore beauty / four season camping	26	76.47
X+ (X + X)	old world charm / family campground / cruise discount warehouse / luxury cruise experts	4	11.76
(X+X) (X+X)	local coach holiday people / family atmosphere campground / one stop cruise shop	3	8.82
(X+((X+X) +X)	family mobile home holiday	1	2.94

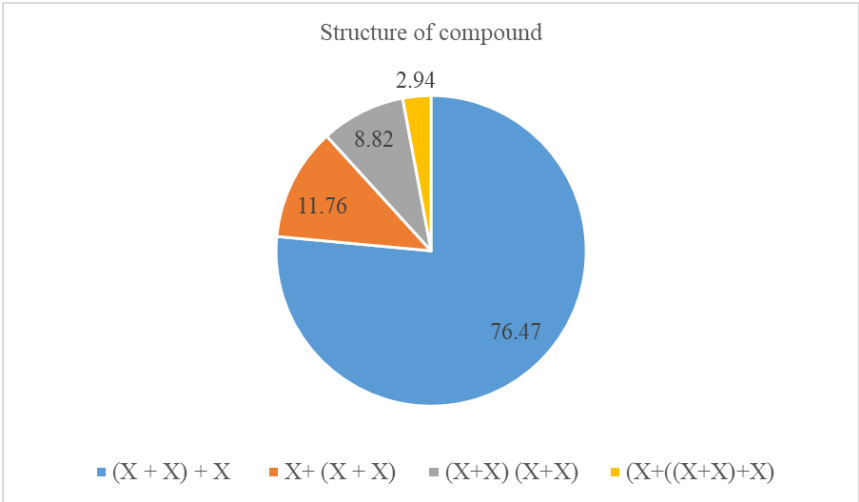


Figure 6 The Percentages of Each Structural Pattern of Compound Nouns
(Source: Suvarnamani, Ratanakul, & Chiravate, 2024h)

According to Plag (2003), another important rule which is essential for the analysis of compounds is the *right-hand head rule*. According to this principle, the vast majority of compounds adopt most of the semantic and syntactic information from its head, which almost always occurs on the right-hand side. This head is usually modified by the left-hand member resulting in a *modifier-head structure*. In accordance with this research finding, the structure (X + X) + X appeared the most frequently (76.47%). In this structure, the head occurs on the right-hand side and is modified by the left-hand member. For example, the word ‘motorcoach’ is put in front of the head noun ‘travel’ in the compound ‘motorcoach travel’ to explain that the company’s service is a travel tour by motorcoach, a vehicle carrying many passengers.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this study aimed to examine the morphological operations of the words used in the data set of tourism slogans. This data were collected from the website “database of advertising slogans” (Textart, 2024). The theoretical framework used in analyzing the morphological operations was based on Huddleston and Pullum’s (2005) work. The results are as follows: firstly, when comparing the occurrences of derivation and compounding among the four parts of speech, both of them appeared the most frequently in the group of nouns. However, when comparing separately in each part of speech, the occurrences of derivation were higher than those of compounding in the groups of verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. For derivation by affixation, the occurrence of suffixation was the highest (46.30%). In addition, the top three prefixes found in this analysis were *re-*, *de-*, *ex-*. For suffixation, *-ing* was the noun suffix appearing the most frequently (16.67%) in this analysis, and for adjective-forming, *-al* had the highest occurrence (15.63%). For

derivation by non-affixation, focusing on conversion, there were 95 occurrences (89.62%) of noun to verb conversion, and there were 11 occurrences (10.38%) of adjective to noun conversion. For other non-affixation, initialism was found the most frequently, accounting for 50%. In terms of compounding, the 2-base compound words were found with the highest frequency (64.95%) and there were two structures of 3-base compounds, (X + X) + X and X + (X + X), and two structures of 4-base compound words: (X+X) (X+X) and (X+((X+X)+X). However, the structure (X + X) + X had the highest frequency (76.47%).

There are two main limitations in this study; firstly, for the number and types of the slogans studied, the data set was limited to 465 hospitality and travel slogans. In addition, only the aspect of morphological operations was analyzed and this did not cover the other interesting aspects such as vagueness or collocations, which can be also found in advertising slogans. Therefore, for further studies, researchers can increase the amount of data in their analysis and compare slogans across various products and services or across media channels. For example, slogans in TV commercials, on social media networking sites, on the radio, or in the online magazines can be studied to check if they use the same word formation processes as in this study.

In spite of the limitations, this study is beneficial to the teachers teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses such as English for Marketing and Advertising. It can also be used as a case study to be taught in linguistics courses, for example, Structure of English, particularly on word-formation. Furthermore, in terms of business and marketing, findings of this study can provide useful information for copywriters and marketers whose main jobs are to create effective and attractive advertising slogans.

Acknowledgements

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