

Pragmatic Strategies in Travel and Hospitality Advertising Slogans

กลวิธีเชิงวัจนปฏิบัติในสโลแกนโฆษณาด้านการท่องเที่ยวและการบริการ

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Received 02-07-2025

Revised 17-01-2026

Accepted 29-01-2026

Doi: 10.69598/artssu.2026.5466.

How to Cite:

Suteerapongsit, R., Suvarnamani, S., & Chiravate, B. (2026).

Pragmatic Strategies in Travel and Hospitality Advertising Slogans. *Journal of Arts and Thai Studies*, 48(2), E5466 (1-22).**Keywords:** presupposition, implicature, tourism, persuasive strategies, pragmatic framework**คำสำคัญ:** มวลบท, ความหมายบ่งชี้
โดยนัย, การท่องเที่ยว, กลยุทธ์เชิง
โน้มน้าว, กรอบแนวคิดเชิง
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Abstract

Background and Objectives: In advertising discourse, messages are often designed to use minimal words while having the maximum persuasive impact. One common way to accomplish this is through the strategic use of implicit meanings—the central focus of pragmatic theory. Among the key pragmatic concepts, presupposition (information assumed to be true based on what is explicitly stated) and implicature (additional meaning derived from the interaction between language and context) serve as powerful devices for attaining this effect. Despite the recognized importance of these pragmatic concepts in advertising, few studies have investigated their combined application in the tourism sector, specifically across its subcategories. To fill this gap, the main aim of this study is to examine how presupposition and implicature function as persuasive strategies in the different sectors of travel and hospitality advertising slogans by identifying the types of presupposition and implicature employed and analyzing the categories of the information they convey.

Methods: The study analyzed 465 travel and hospitality advertising slogans across eight industry subcategories (coach travel, train travel, camping, cruise, hostel, hotel, motel, and resort) drawn from the Database of Advertising Slogans using a mixed-methods approach involving both quantitative and qualitative analysis. Presuppositions were categorized into six types (existential, factive, lexical, structural, non-factive, and counterfactual) and implicatures were classified into three types (conventional, generalized conversational, and particularized conversational) using established pragmatic frameworks. They were then coded and tabulated for frequency analysis. Reliability was enhanced through independent coding by three researchers, followed by meetings to reach conclusions on disputed cases. A qualitative content analysis investigated the rhetorical and thematic functions of these pragmatic features. This integrated procedure allows for both quantitative precision and interpretive depth, providing insights into how implicit meaning boosts persuasion in advertising and it adapts well to the complexity of promotional discourse.

Results: The findings reveal a clear dominance of existential presuppositions (77.95%) and a strong overall preference for generalized conversational implicatures (50.58%), though distribution patterns vary by sector-specific marketing goals. Presuppositions primarily communicate five types of information: customer needs and desires, destination or experience attributes, value propositions, service quality, and brand authority. Implicatures convey six themes: sensory and emotional experience, superiority and competition, transformation and escape, service reliability and personalization, social identity and belonging, and expertise and authenticity. These categories align with the strategic focus of different travel sectors. Presupposition and implicature work cooperatively to deliver dense and compelling messages that prompt audience inference while maximizing brevity—ideal for advertising's constrained format. This integrated analysis contributes to our understanding of how implicit meaning supports persuasive communication in tourism, especially in a service-oriented context where the product is an experience rather than a tangible object.

Application of this study: This study shows how presupposition and implicature contribute to creating concise and persuasive messages in travel advertising slogans. It offers practical insights for tailoring slogans to the unique value propositions of various travel sectors. In terms of pedagogical implications, it underscores the importance of teaching pragmatic mechanisms in business English curricula, particularly in tourism-focused contexts like Thailand. Theoretically, it highlights how these pragmatic tools function unitedly to convey layered meanings through minimal language, in line with relevance-based communication paradigms.

Conclusions: This study analyzed 465 travel and hospitality advertising slogans to explore how presupposition and implicature are utilized to convey persuasive and succinct messages in eight subcategories of the industry.

Although researcher triangulation supported validity, limitations include interpretive subjectivity, the absence of multimodal context analysis, and assumptions regarding intentionality and audience effect. Future studies should therefore include visual analysis, audience reception studies, and cross-sector comparisons. Despite its limitations, the study offers practical guidance for branding in specific sectors, contributes to theoretical concepts through Relevance Theory, and supports business English education—particularly in a tourism-driven country like Thailand—by highlighting the effective incorporation of implicit strategies in professional communication.

บทคัดย่อ

ที่มาและวัตถุประสงค์: ในวาทกรรมโฆษณา ข้อความมักได้รับการออกแบบให้ใช้ถ้อยคำน้อยที่สุดแต่ให้ผลในทางสูงใจมากที่สุด วิธีหนึ่งที่นิยมใช้ในการบรรลุเป้าหมายดังกล่าวคือ การใช้ความหมายโดยนัยอย่างมีกลยุทธ์ ซึ่งเป็นประเด็นหลักของทฤษฎีวิจักษณ์ปฏิบัติศาสตร์ ในบรรดาแนวคิดสำคัญทางวิจักษณ์ปฏิบัติศาสตร์ มูลบท (presupposition) (ข้อมูลที่ถูกสันนิษฐานว่าจริงโดยอาศัยสิ่งที่ถูกกล่าวไว้อย่างชัดเจน) และความหมายบ่งชี้โดยนัย (implicature) (ความหมายเพิ่มเติมที่ได้จากปฏิสัมพันธ์ระหว่างภาษาและบริบท) ทำหน้าที่เป็นเครื่องมือสำคัญเพื่อให้บรรลุผลนี้ แม้ว่าแนวคิดวิจักษณ์ปฏิบัติศาสตร์เหล่านี้จะได้รับการยอมรับว่ามีบทบาทสำคัญในงานโฆษณา แต่กลับมีงานวิจัยเพียงไม่มากนักที่ศึกษาการประยุกต์ใช้ทั้งสองแนวคิดนี้ร่วมกันในภาคการท่องเที่ยว โดยเฉพาะในระดับภาคส่วนย่อย เพื่อเติมเต็มช่องว่างนี้ วัตถุประสงค์หลักของการศึกษานี้ คือการศึกษาว่า มูลบท และความหมายบ่งชี้โดยนัยทำหน้าที่เป็นกลยุทธ์โน้มน้าวใจอย่างไรในสโลแกนโฆษณาการท่องเที่ยวและการบริการในภาคส่วนต่าง ๆ โดยมุ่งจำแนกประเภทของมูลบท และความหมายบ่งชี้โดยนัยที่ถูกนำมาใช้ และวิเคราะห์ประเภทของข้อมูลที่ถูกสื่อสารผ่านกลยุทธ์เหล่านี้

วิธีการศึกษา: การวิจัยนี้ได้ทำการวิเคราะห์สโลแกนโฆษณาการท่องเที่ยวและการบริการ จำนวน 465 รายการครอบคลุม 8 หมวดหมู่อุตสาหกรรมย่อย (การเดินทางโดยรถประจำทาง การเดินทางโดยรถไฟ การตั้งแคมป์ การล่องเรือ โฮสเทล โรงแรม โมเทล และรีสอร์ท) ซึ่งเป็นข้อมูลที่ได้มาจากรฐานข้อมูลสโลแกนโฆษณา (the Database of Advertising Slogans) โดยใช้ระเบียบวิธีแบบผสมผสาน (mixed-methods approach) ซึ่งประกอบด้วยการวิเคราะห์ทั้งเชิงปริมาณและเชิงคุณภาพ ผู้วิจัยจัดหมวดหมู่มูลบทเป็น 6 ประเภท (เชิงการดำรงอยู่ (existential), เชิงความจริง (factive), เชิงความหมายของคำ (lexical), เชิงโครงสร้างประโยค (structural), เชิงความไม่เป็นจริง (non-factive), และเชิงตรงข้ามกับความเป็นจริง (counterfactual)) และจัดหมวดหมู่ความหมายบ่งชี้โดยนัย เป็น 3 ประเภท (ตามแบบแผน (conventional), เชิงสนทนาแบบทั่วไป (generalized conversational), และเชิงสนทนาแบบเฉพาะ (particularized conversational)) ตามกรอบแนวคิดทางวิจักษณ์ปฏิบัติศาสตร์ที่เป็นที่ยอมรับ จากนั้น ได้จัดกลุ่มสโลแกนในแต่ละหมวดหมู่อุตสาหกรรมย่อยตามประเภทของมูลบทและประเภทของความหมายแบบบ่งชี้โดยนัย โดยจัดทำเป็นตารางเพื่อวิเคราะห์ความถี่ เพื่อความน่าเชื่อถือ ผู้วิจัยแต่ละคนได้วิเคราะห์และจัดกลุ่มสโลแกนแยกกัน และได้ประชุมร่วมกันเพื่อหาข้อสรุปในกรณีที่มีความเห็นต่าง ในเชิงคุณภาพ ผู้วิจัยได้ศึกษาหน้าที่เชิงวาทศิลป์และเชิงเนื้อหาของลักษณะวิจักษณ์ปฏิบัติศาสตร์เหล่านี้ กระบวนการแบบบูรณาการนี้ทำให้เกิดความแม่นยำเชิงปริมาณและความลุ่มลึกด้านการตีความ ซึ่งให้ข้อมูลเชิงลึกเกี่ยวกับวิธีที่ความหมายโดยนัยช่วยในการโน้มน้าวใจในโฆษณา และยังเหมาะสมกับความซับซ้อนของวาทกรรมเพื่อการส่งเสริมการขาย

ผลการศึกษา: ผลการวิจัยแสดงให้เห็นถึงความโดดเด่นอย่างชัดเจนของมูลบทเชิงการดำรงอยู่ (existential presupposition) (77.95%) และแนวโน้มความนิยมโดยรวมต่อ ความหมายบ่งชี้โดยนัยเชิงสนทนาแบบทั่วไป (generalized conversational implicature) (50.58%) แม้ว่ารูปแบบการใช้จะมีความแตกต่างกันตามเป้าหมายทางการตลาดเฉพาะของแต่ละหมวดหมู่อุตสาหกรรม มูลบทสื่อสารข้อมูล 5 ประเภทหลัก ๆ ได้แก่ ความต้องการและความปรารถนาของลูกค้า คุณลักษณะของจุดหมายปลายทางหรือประสบการณ์ การนำเสนอคุณค่า คุณภาพของบริการ และความน่าเชื่อถือของแบรนด์ ความหมายบ่งชี้โดยนัยสื่อสารแนวคิดหลัก 6 ประการ ได้แก่ ประสบการณ์ด้านประสาทสัมผัสและอารมณ์ ความเหนือกว่าและการแข่งขัน การเปลี่ยนแปลงและการหลีกเลี่ยง ความน่าเชื่อถือและการให้บริการที่ปรับตามความต้องการเฉพาะบุคคล อัตลักษณ์ทางสังคมและความเป็นส่วนหนึ่งของกลุ่ม และความเชี่ยวชาญและความจริงแท้ หมวดหมู่ข้อมูลเหล่านี้สอดคล้องกับจุดสนใจเชิงกลยุทธ์ของภาคธุรกิจท่องเที่ยวในแต่ละประเภท มูลบทและความหมายบ่งชี้โดยนัย ทำหน้าที่ร่วมกันในการถ่ายทอดข้อความที่กระชับและน่าดึงดูดใจ เพื่อกระตุ้นให้ผู้รับสารเกิดการตีความอย่างมีนัยยะ ในขณะที่ยังคงความกระชับซึ่งเหมาะสมกับความยาวที่จำกัดของโฆษณา การวิเคราะห์แบบบูรณาการนี้ช่วยเสริมสร้างความเข้าใจว่าความหมายโดยนัยช่วยสนับสนุนการสื่อสารเพื่อการโน้มน้าวใจในการท่องเที่ยวได้อย่างไร โดยเฉพาะในบริบทของการบริการที่ตัวสินค้า คือประสบการณ์ มากกว่าที่จะเป็นวัตถุที่จับต้องได้

การประยุกต์ใช้: งานวิจัยนี้แสดงให้เห็นวิธีที่มูลบทและความหมายบ่งชี้โดยนัย ใช้ในการสร้างข้อความที่กระชับและสามารถโน้มน้าวใจในสโลแกนโฆษณาด้านการท่องเที่ยว โดยนำเสนอข้อค้นพบเชิงประยุกต์ที่เป็นประโยชน์ต่อการออกแบบสโลแกนให้สอดคล้องกับคุณค่าของบริการเฉพาะในแต่ละภาคส่วนการท่องเที่ยว ในด้านการจัดการเรียนการสอน งานวิจัยนี้เน้นย้ำถึงความสำคัญของการสอนกลวิธีเชิงวิจักษณ์ปฏิบัติศาสตร์ในหลักสูตรภาษาอังกฤษธุรกิจ โดยเฉพาะอย่างยิ่งในบริบทที่มุ่งเน้นด้านการท่องเที่ยว เช่น ประเทศไทย ในเชิงทฤษฎี งานวิจัยนี้ชี้ให้เห็นว่า เครื่องมือทางวิจักษณ์ปฏิบัติศาสตร์

เหล่านี้ทำงานร่วมกันอย่างมีประสิทธิภาพในการถ่ายทอดความหมายที่มีหลายระดับผ่านภาษาที่ใช้ถ้อยคำน้อยได้อย่างไร ซึ่งสอดคล้องกับทฤษฎีการสื่อสารที่เน้นความเกี่ยวข้อง

บทสรุป: งานวิจัยนี้ได้ทำการวิเคราะห์สโลแกนโฆษณาด้านการท่องเที่ยวและบริการจำนวน 465 รายการ เพื่อศึกษาว่ามูลบทและความหมายบ่งชี้โดยนัย ถูกนำมาใช้ถ่ายทอดข้อความที่มีลักษณะโน้มน้าวใจและกระชับได้อย่างไรใน 8 หมวดหมู่ย่อยของอุตสาหกรรมดังกล่าว แม้ว่าการตรวจสอบสามเสาโดยนักวิจัยจะช่วยสนับสนุนความถูกต้อง แต่ก็ยังมีข้อจำกัด ได้แก่ ความเป็นอัตวิสัยในการตีความ การขาดการวิเคราะห์ในบริบทแบบสื่อประสม และการตั้งสมมติฐานเกี่ยวกับเจตนาของผู้ส่งสารรวมถึงผลกระทบต่อผู้รับสาร ดังนั้น งานวิจัยในอนาคตจึงควรศึกษาการวิเคราะห์องค์ประกอบด้านภาพ การศึกษาการตอบสนองของกลุ่มเป้าหมาย ตลอดจนการเปรียบเทียบระหว่างภาคส่วนต่าง ๆ แม้จะมีข้อจำกัด แต่งานวิจัยชิ้นนี้ก็ให้แนวทางในเชิงปฏิบัติสำหรับการสร้างแบรนด์ในภาคส่วนเฉพาะ และมีส่วนช่วยสนับสนุนแนวคิดเชิงทฤษฎี ผ่านทางทฤษฎีความสัมพันธ์ (Relevance Theory) และสนับสนุนการเรียนการศึกษาด้านภาษาศาสตร์ธุรกิจ โดยเฉพาะในบริบทของประเทศที่ขับเคลื่อนด้วยอุตสาหกรรมการท่องเที่ยวอย่างประเทศไทย โดยการเน้นย้ำถึง การบูรณาการกลยุทธ์ความหมายโดยนัยในการสื่อสารทางวิชาชีพอย่างมีประสิทธิภาพ

Introduction

Communication often extends beyond explicit statements, operating through implicit mechanisms that convey meaning without direct articulation. The pragmatic phenomena of presupposition and implicature represent fundamental linguistic devices through which information is communicated indirectly yet effectively (Levinson, 1983; Yule, 1996). While extensively studied in conversational contexts, these pragmatic features permeate various discourse genres, including advertising language, where brevity and persuasive impact are crucial (Cook, 2001; Geis, 1982; Leech, 1966; Liu & Tian, 2022; Myers, 1994). Presuppositions—assumptions embedded within utterances that remain intact under negation—and implicatures—inferences drawn beyond literal meaning—serve as powerful rhetorical tools within the constrained textual space of advertising slogans.

In the context of travel and hospitality, such pragmatic mechanisms appear to be particularly well-suited to the industry's communicative needs, where evoking emotional responses, reinforcing brand positioning, and conveying compelling destination narratives must often be achieved within just a few words. Tourism slogans, in particular, help promote destinations by guiding consumers' perceptions and encouraging them to remember and believe the key messages (Huang, et al., 2017). They also play a significant role in capturing and communicating the desired brand identity (Dahlén & Rosengren, 2005; Keller, 1998).

These pragmatic mechanisms are evident in travel and hospitality slogans, where meaning is often conveyed implicitly rather than explicitly. For example, the resort slogan *"Broaden your horizons. Raise your expectations."* presupposes that potential customers already hold certain expectations, signaled by the possessive *your*, and suggests that the resort can exceed them. Similarly, the motel slogan *"A few miles from everywhere."* relies on implicature, inviting readers to infer the motel's convenient location, namely, its proximity to major destinations or attractions. Such expressions illustrate how advertisers rely on shared assumptions and inferential reasoning to convey persuasive messages without making explicit claims within highly constrained texts.

Many studies have examined pragmatic mechanisms in advertising; nonetheless, relatively few have focused specifically on travel-related discourse (e.g., Kachin, 2022; Laosrirattanachai & Panyametheekul, 2018; Liu & Tian, 2022). While these studies demonstrate that presupposition and implicature play a critical role in the persuasive power of advertising, they tend to examine either strategy in isolation and are often limited to national tourism contexts that emphasize broad country-level images rather than sector-specific travel and hospitality advertising, where persuasive strategies may vary across industry subcategories.

Research Objectives

To address the gap in previous research, this study aims to examine how presupposition and implicature function as complementary persuasive strategies in commercial travel advertising. Drawing on 465 slogans from eight travel-industry subcategories, we identify the types of presupposition and implicature employed and analyze the types of information they convey.

Literature Review

1. Theoretical Background

1.1 Presupposition

Presupposition constitutes a fundamental pragmatic mechanism whereby speakers embed implicit assumptions within utterances, treating certain propositions as shared knowledge between interlocutors (Yule, 1996). To understand this concept better, consider how we communicate in everyday conversation. When someone says “I’m sorry I’m late,” they presuppose that they had an obligation to arrive at a certain time—this assumption remains true whether they apologize or not. Similarly, if someone asks “Have you stopped smoking?”, the question presupposes that the person used to smoke, regardless of whether the answer is yes or no.

Distinguished from assertions by their persistence under negation, questioning, and conditionals—a property termed “presupposition constancy” or “projection”—these linguistic phenomena enable efficient information packaging while establishing common ground (Levinson, 1983; Huang, 2014). In practical terms, this means that presupposed information “survives” even when we transform a sentence. For example, “John’s wife is a doctor” presupposes John has a wife. This assumption remains intact in the negative form (“John’s wife is not a doctor”), the question form (“Is John’s wife a doctor?”), and the conditional form (“If John’s wife is a doctor...”). This persistence makes presupposition a powerful tool for communicating background information efficiently.

The taxonomic framework employed in this study draws primarily from Yule (1996) and Levinson (1983), encompassing six distinct presupposition types based on their linguistic triggers:

Existential presuppositions assume the existence of the entities named in utterances, triggered by definite descriptions. In everyday English, we use these constantly. When you say “close the door,” you presuppose a door exists. When you mention “the coffee shop on the corner,” you assume your listener knows which specific coffee shop you mean. In advertising discourse, possessive constructions function in a similar way. For instance, the slogan “Your dream vacation is just a click away” presupposes that the addressee has a dream vacation that exists conceptually, if not yet experientially.

Factive presuppositions are triggered through verbs like “know,” “realize,” and “regret,” embedding assumptions as fact. In daily communication, these verbs carry powerful implications. When someone says “I regret eating so much,” they acknowledge that they did eat too much—this fact is presupposed. Similarly, “She knows the meeting is tomorrow” presupposes that the meeting is indeed tomorrow. This mechanism is also exploited in travel advertising, as in the slogan “Travelers regret not booking their accommodations early” which presupposes that some travelers do not book their accommodations early.

Lexical presuppositions are generated via state-change verbs creating temporal narratives. These verbs imply a change from one state to another. In ordinary conversation, when you say “I stopped exercising,” you presuppose you used to exercise. “They began the project” presupposes the project wasn’t happening before but is now. In advertising

discourse, this type of presupposition appears in slogans such as “Southwest Airlines—Resume the journey” which presupposes that the journey had previously been started and then interrupted or paused via the word “resume”.

Structural presuppositions are generated by using *wh*-questions and cleft constructions to highlight key elements. In everyday English, questions like “Where did you buy that shirt?” presuppose you bought the shirt somewhere—the only question is where. When we say “It was Mary who broke the vase,” we presuppose someone broke the vase and use the cleft structure to emphasize that it was Mary specifically. A comparable use can be found in advertising slogans like “It’s the authentic culture that makes us different” which highlights “authentic culture” through the use of an *it*-cleft sentence.

Non-factive presuppositions are triggered by verbs such as “dream,” “imagine,” and “pretend,” which treat propositions as assumed without asserting their truth value. In everyday conversation, these verbs signal hypothetical or uncertain scenarios. When someone says “I imagine you’re tired after the long flight,” they don’t claim with certainty that you are tired—the statement remains in the realm of assumption rather than established fact. Similarly, “She dreams of owning a beachfront house” presupposes her desire but not the actual ownership or even the realistic possibility of it. (e.g., “Imagine yourself relaxing on pristine beaches” in travel advertising presupposes the scenario of relaxation without committing to its guaranteed occurrence.)

Counterfactual presuppositions are constructed through conditional structures that presuppose the falsity of their conditions, typically employing subjunctive mood or past perfect constructions. In daily English, these express contrary-to-fact situations. When you say “If I had known about the traffic, I would have left earlier,” you presuppose that you didn’t know about the traffic and didn’t leave earlier—both contrary to what actually happened. Another example: “If she were the manager, things would be different” presupposes that she is not the manager. (e.g., “If you had booked with us, you would have saved 30%” presupposes that the addressee did not book with the company, highlighting a missed opportunity rather than promoting future action.)

Non-factive and counterfactual presuppositions, however, rarely appear in promotional contexts due to their uncertainty implications (Tang, 2019; Zeng, 2012).

1.2 Implicature

Implicature represents a cornerstone concept in pragmatics, referring to meaning that is communicated indirectly through inference rather than explicit statement (Grice, 1975). In our daily conversations, we constantly say one thing but mean something more or different. When a friend asks “Do you want to grab dinner?” and you respond “I had a huge lunch,” you haven’t directly said “no,” but your friend understands your implied refusal. This gap between what is literally said and what is actually meant exemplifies implicature.

Grice’s (1975) foundational framework distinguishes between conventional and conversational implicature based on their derivation sources and functional properties.

Conventional implicature derives from the semantic properties of specific lexical items rather than conversational principles, remaining constant across contexts while being logically independent of truth-conditional content (Grice, 1975; Potts, 2005). In everyday English, certain words carry additional implications that are built into their meaning but don’t affect the basic truth of what’s being said. Consider the difference between “John is poor but honest” and “John is poor and honest.” Both sentences convey the same basic facts—John’s poverty and honesty—but the word “but” adds an implicature that there’s something unexpected or contrary about being both poor and honest, perhaps suggesting that poverty and honesty don’t usually go together. This additional meaning comes directly from the word “but” itself, not from any particular conversational context. Another everyday example: “Even Sarah passed the exam” uses “even” to conventionally implicate that Sarah was an unlikely or surprising person to pass, perhaps suggesting she was among the

least prepared students. These implications remain stable regardless of context—"but" always signals contrast, and "even" always marks unexpectedness. In travel advertising, conventional implicatures appear less frequently than conversational ones but serve specific rhetorical functions when deployed. For instance, "Our hotels are luxurious but affordable" uses "but" to conventionally implicate that luxury and affordability are typically incompatible qualities, thereby emphasizing the exceptional value proposition. The phrase "Even budget travelers can experience premium service" employs "even" to conventionally implicate that budget travelers are an unlikely demographic for premium service, thus highlighting the inclusive nature of the offering.

Conversational implicature, by contrast, emerges from the interaction between utterance and context through rational inference based on communicative cooperation, exhibiting cancellability and context-sensitivity (Grice, 1975). These implicatures arise not from specific words but from how we use language in context to communicate efficiently and cooperatively. When your roommate says "There's leftover pizza in the fridge," they're not just reporting a fact—in context, they're likely implicating "You can have some if you want" or "I saved some for you." This meaning isn't built into any particular word; it emerges from the context (perhaps it's dinnertime, you're hungry, they know you like pizza) and our mutual understanding of why people share information. Crucially, such implicatures can be cancelled: your roommate could add "...but I'm saving it for tomorrow's lunch" without contradiction, whereas you cannot similarly cancel conventional implicatures (you can't say "John is poor but honest, though I don't mean to suggest anything unusual about that combination" without sounding incoherent).

Conversational implicature further subdivides into generalized and particularized types based on contextual requirements (Levinson, 2000).

Generalized Conversational Implicature (GCI) arises systematically from linguistic form without requiring specific contextual knowledge, operating through default interpretations that listeners apply unless context suggests otherwise (Levinson, 2000). In everyday English, GCIs are inferences we make automatically based on how something is said, regardless of the particular situation. Consider when someone says "I went to a restaurant last night." We automatically infer (via GCI) that this restaurant is not one already established in the conversation—if it were the restaurant, you both discussed yesterday, the speaker would have said "the restaurant" or "that restaurant we talked about." This inference happens by default, not because of any special context. Similarly, when someone says "Some students passed the exam," we typically infer that not all students passed. If all had passed, the speaker would normally have said "All students passed." These scalar implicatures—where weaker terms on a scale (some, possible, warm) imply the negation of stronger alternatives (all, certain, hot)—represent a key category of GCI. The inference arises from the form of expression itself (the choice of "some" rather than "all") and applies as a default across contexts. In travel advertising, GCIs operate powerfully and efficiently. When an advertisement states "Some restrictions apply," it generates a GCI that not all restrictions apply, implicating flexibility despite limitations. The phrase "Discounts available on selected routes" similarly implicates through GCI that discounts are not available on all routes, managing expectations while maintaining promotional appeal.

Particularized Conversational Implicature (PCI), conversely, depends critically on specific contextual features and shared knowledge between interlocutors, making interpretation highly situation-dependent (Grice, 1975; Huang, 2014). Unlike GCIs, PCIs require us to know the particular context to derive the intended meaning. In everyday conversation, when someone asks "Are you going to Sarah's party?" and you respond "I have to work this weekend," your response implicates "no" or "probably not"—but this inference depends entirely on the specific context: knowing that Sarah's party is this weekend, that work commitments typically prevent social activities, and that you're answering a yes/no question about attendance. The same utterance "I have to work this weekend" in a different context (say, when a friend asks "Want

to grab coffee sometime?”) might implicate availability on weekday evenings rather than unavailability. Travel advertising strategically employs PCIs to create targeted appeals that resonate with specific audience segments. Consider the slogan “Escape the ordinary” in a travel advertisement. The implicature—that the destination offers extraordinary, unique experiences unlike typical tourist locations—depends on shared cultural understanding of what “ordinary” travel involves (crowded tourist traps, standardized experiences, predictable itineraries) and the assumption that travelers desire distinction and authenticity. The effectiveness of this PCI relies on audience members bringing specific contextual knowledge and values to their interpretation.

The distinction among conventional implicature, GCI, and PCI proves particularly salient in travel advertising analysis, as advertisers strategically deploy these mechanisms to maximize persuasive impact while minimizing explicit commitment (Tang, 2019). Conventional implicatures provide stable, word-based implications; GCIs offer broad-based appeals that work across diverse audiences through automatic default inferences; while PCIs enable targeted messaging that resonates deeply with specific consumer segments through context-dependent meanings. By understanding how these types of implicature operate differently, we can better analyze how travel advertisements construct layered meanings that engage readers in active interpretation while maintaining the flexibility and plausible deniability that implicit communication affords.

2. Earlier Studies on Pragmatics in Advertising

Scholars have long recognized that advertising is rich in pragmatic features, particularly presupposition and implicature, which allow advertisers to suggest meaning implicitly. Foundational work emphasized the persuasive impact of indirectness. Leech (1966) examined how advertising language frequently prefers indirect, elliptical, and context-dependent forms of expression over direct persuasion. Key elements, including ellipsis, presupposition, and implication, necessitate active audience interpretation of the message. Leech suggested that this indirectness serves to make advertising less overtly intrusive and more polite. This strategy enables advertising to achieve greater subtlety while also conveying a more natural and conversational tone, thereby enhancing its rhetorical impact.

Building on this perspective, subsequent studies drew explicitly on pragmatic theory to explain how indirect meaning is generated and interpreted in advertising. Geis (1982) applied Grice’s theory of implicature to advertising, showing that advertisements often imitate everyday conversation to appear more genuine and trustworthy. He demonstrated that advertisers adopt the Gricean maxims—particularly relevance, quantity, and manner—to create indirect assertions that invite the audience to deduce stronger meanings than those explicitly expressed. Through techniques like vague quantifiers, incomplete comparisons, and implicit comparatives, advertisers depend on audiences to “fill in the gaps,” which makes the claims less clearly disprovable and more convincing. According to Geis, this indirectness makes advertisements appear cooperative and conversational, while subtly shaping interpretation to the advertisers’ advantage.

Later research extended this pragmatic view by emphasizing the interaction between language, context, and audience interpretation. Myers (1994) highlighted that advertisements assign interpretive roles to audiences, who actively negotiate meaning based on their social and cultural backgrounds. Through ambiguity, metaphor, rhetorical questions, and turn-taking, advertisements simulate conversational interaction and prompt inferential processing. Similarly, Cook (2001) argued that advertising meaning emerges from the interplay between text, image, and shared cultural knowledge. Techniques such as metaphor, fusion, and ellipsis enable advertisers to express complex ideas through minimal words, reinforcing the inferential and context-dependent characteristics of advertising discourse. Together, these studies illustrate a fundamental role of pragmatics in advertising where meaning is co-constructed rather than explicitly stated.

More recent studies have implemented these insights by investigating specific pragmatic mechanisms in contemporary advertising contexts. Many of them have focused on presupposition as a key persuasive strategy.

Tang (2019) examined nine Lancôme print commercials using Yule's typology of presupposition and Levinson's list of presupposition triggers. Her analysis found that existential and factive presuppositions were particularly frequent, often triggered by definite descriptions (e.g., the secret to show-stopping eyes), possessives (e.g., your skin's youth), and verbs like "know" and "be proud". She illustrated that these presuppositions embed assumed truths and help direct readers' focus. Lexical and structural presuppositions were also common, especially those generated by comparative constructions (e.g., reveal your true lips more naturally than ever before). Tang argued that presupposition improves the persuasiveness, conciseness, cost-effectiveness, and politeness of advertising and can indirectly praise consumers by implying favorable attributes without stating them directly. She also noted that presupposition serves an important orienting function, guiding consumer focus efficiently toward the key message.

Similarly, Zuhriani (2022) used a bigger dataset, analyzing 20 Instagram ads from 10 international cosmetic brands to explore how presupposition shapes advertising language. Adopting Yule's typology and Lam's (2009) framework, she identified four presupposition types—existential, lexical, structural, and non-factive presuppositions, with existential presuppositions being the most common. According to Zuhriani, these presuppositions serve to generate implicit comparisons, highlight product presence through possessive phrases (e.g., "our gloss"), and make ads catchy and memorable through brevity and sound patterns (e.g., "Gloss on, worries gone!"). The study indicated that presupposition enables advertisers to convey persuasive and assumption-driven messages subtly, without making overt claims, thus boosting appeal and reader involvement.

Ijabah & Argina (2022) focused on five SK-II video ads using Levinson's list of presupposition triggers and found 10 of the 13 types appeared in the data. Definite descriptions and pronouns were used most often, fostering implied meanings and consumer intimacy. Factive (e.g., Akita is also known for), implicative (e.g., to figure it out how to balance family life and work), iterative (e.g., to step back into the spotlight), and change-of-state verbs (e.g., started noticing something different), which helped highlight transformation narratives, were less common. The study also showed how these triggers supported six of Ge's (2011) functions, i.e., conciseness, enlargement, emphasis, concealment, persuasion, and self-protection. Their study illustrated how presuppositions can be integrated in narrative forms to subtly guide consumer interpretation, especially in emotionally driven storytelling.

Hu (2023) expanded the analysis to a cross-linguistic comparison, examining semantic presupposition types in English and Chinese advertising slogans for similar products using Yule's (2000) typology. The study found that factive presuppositions were predominant in Chinese slogans (e.g., Heineken refreshes the parts other beers cannot reach.), while structural presuppositions, particularly those triggered by wh-questions (e.g., What makes this World Business Class so special?), were common in English slogans. Hu associated these preferences with cultural and societal values—Chinese slogans underscored emotional fulfillment, family, and traditional ideals, whereas English slogans relied on implied facts through syntactic structure. The study also emphasized the significance of pragmatic presupposition and cultural awareness, defined as sensitivity to target customers' cultures, showing that inadequately tailored slogans could result in misunderstanding or negative reactions, while culturally adapted messages promoted audience connection.

In a related service sector, Liu and Tian (2022) examined 83 airline advertising slogans using a hybrid classification based on Yule (1996) and Chen (1998)'s frameworks. Although not framed explicitly as tourism advertising, their study is relevant to travel discourse, as airline slogans often promote journey-related experiences and emotional resonance. They identified five types of pragmatic presupposition—factive, existential, behavior (e.g., Up, up, and away.), belief (e.g., Defy obstacles), and state (e.g., You're going to like us.)—with factive and existential types being the most common. The study

also highlighted five key pragmatic functions of presupposition in slogans: conciseness, diversity, persuasion, politeness, and concealment. Presupposition was shown to boost emotional appeal, influence customer belief and behavior, and implicitly suggest product benefits—often in compact and memorable forms. The authors also stressed that presupposition allows advertisers to comply with regulations while discreetly conveying product value, making it a key technique in effective airline and travel-related marketing discourse.

Parallel to this line of research, other studies have emphasized the role of implicature in advertising persuasion. Lavandeira Rojo (2015) conducted a comparative linguistic analysis of over 300 English and Spanish advertisements spanning 13 years, examining phonological, morphological, syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic features. The pragmatic analysis showed that both English and Spanish slogans extensively used implicatures by flouting Grice's maxims, especially the Maxim of Quantity, through the use of hyperbole (e.g., The SMALLEST Star Taco EVER), presupposition (e.g., For the taste of a real chocolate bar with half the fat of milk chocolate, eat Flyte.), and indirect suggestions (e.g., Something ... will improve your life). Repetition and emphatic negative constructions (e.g., "Nothing can beat ...") were used more often in English advertisements to imply product superiority and familiarity. On the other hand, Spanish ads seemed to maintain a more formal tone, utilizing social deixis, which is a reference to the social characteristics of the participants in a communicative event, to convey politeness or respect through pronouns. Despite the differences, both languages employed pragmatic techniques to persuade readers while maintaining linguistic economy. Such findings further confirm that indirect meaning-making is a central persuasive resource in advertising discourse.

Despite these contributions, studies that examine both presupposition and implicature together remain relatively limited, particularly in travel-related contexts. One notable exception is Laosirattanachai & Panyametheekul (2018), who examined presupposition, implicature, Grice's maxims, and speech acts in 113 tourism slogans from national tourism campaigns worldwide. They found that 95.58% of slogans relied on conversational implicature, and all slogans flouted the maxim of quantity to boost intrigue and memorability. With regard to presupposition functions, their analysis of Ge's (2011) presupposition functions revealed that interestingness, conciseness, concealment, and enlargement were the most dominant strategies. Notably, despite having different surface forms—statements, commands, or questions—all slogans served as indirect invitations. Regarding speech act types, representatives (e.g., The Mediterranean as it once was) were used most frequently, followed by directives (e.g., Arrive and revive) and verdictives (e.g., For the best moments of your life). These findings highlight the strategic use of indirect language and pragmatic competence in creating brief, engaging, and persuasive tourism slogans.

Focusing on a single national context, Kachin (2022) examined 34 tourism slogans from the Tourism Authority of Thailand, applying Searle's speech act theory¹ and a cultural lens based on Thai values. She identified four types of speech acts in the slogans—assertives (e.g., "เที่ยวแผ่นดินทอง ร่วมฉลองปีท่องเที่ยวไทย" 'Travel the Golden Land, celebrate the Thai Tourism Year'), directives (e.g., "กอดเมืองไทย...ให้หายเหนื่อย" 'Embrace Thailand... and let your fatigue fade'), expressives (e.g., "หลงรักประเทศไทย" 'Fall in love with Thailand'), and declaratives (e.g., "ปีท่องเที่ยวไทย 2542 การเฉลิมฉลองแม่น้ำแห่งราชอาณาจักรไทย" 'Amazing Thailand Tourism 1999: Celebrating the Rivers of the Kingdom of Thailand')—with direct speech acts occurring more frequently than indirect ones. Assertives and directives were the most

¹ Speech act theory explains how language functions not only to describe the world but also to perform actions. speech acts can be grouped into five main categories: representatives or assertives (commit the speaker to the truth of what is being said, e.g. statements of fact, descriptions, assertions), directives (try to get the hearer to do something, e.g. requests, commands, advice, invitations), commissives (commit the speaker to a future action, e.g. promises, offers, vows, threats), expressives (convey the speaker's psychological state or emotional response to a situation, e.g. apologies, thanks, congratulations, complaints), and declarations (bring about a change in the external situation simply by being uttered, e.g. pronouncing someone married, declaring a meeting open, announcing a verdict).

dominant, reflecting the purposes of both informing and influencing tourists. In terms of content, two overarching value systems were revealed in the slogans: individual values (e.g., fun, relaxation, self-fulfillment) and social values (e.g., hospitality, cultural pride, unity). Although it offers valuable insights into how tourism slogans are shaped by and reflect key Thai cultural values, her study did not incorporate presupposition and implicature as pragmatic tools, limiting its investigation of indirect meaning and pragmatic delicacy.

Taken together, previous studies clearly establish the importance of pragmatics in advertising persuasion. However, three gaps remain evident. First, theoretical isolation: Existing studies examine presupposition or implicature separately, missing potential synergistic effects from their coordination. Second, contextual generalization: Research has focused primarily on product advertising or national tourism campaigns, leaving commercial travel marketing underexplored despite its distinct communicative challenges. Third, descriptive limitation: Current work typically catalogs pragmatic features without explaining their strategic deployment or relationship to marketing objectives.

This study addresses these gaps by examining how presupposition and implicature function as complementary persuasive strategies in commercial travel advertising. Rather than treating them as isolated mechanisms, we investigate their systematic interaction across 465 slogans from eight travel industry subcategories. Demonstrating that presupposition and implicature create complementary information layers that optimize persuasive impact under textual constraints, this study contributes to both pragmatic theory and strategic communication practice.

Research Methods

1. Research Questions

For analyzing presupposition and implicature in travel and hospitality advertising slogans, two research questions that guide the analysis are:

1. How do presupposition and implicature patterns reflect sector-specific marketing strategies across the different segments of the travel and hospitality industry?
2. How do presuppositions and implicatures function cooperatively to enhance persuasive impact in the travel advertising slogans?

2. Data Collection

The dataset derives from the *Database of Advertising Slogans* compiled by Textart (2024). This database was selected because it provides a systematically organized collection of slogans from a wide range of brands, categorized into distinct industry subcategories. It has also been used in previous advertising research, notably by Strutton and Roswinanto (2014). All slogans listed under the *Hospitality and Travel* category were collected in April 2024. The final dataset consists of 465 advertising slogans distributed across eight distinct subcategories, as presented below:

Table 1 Distribution of Hospitality and Travel Slogans across Subcategories

Category	Coach Travel	Train Travel	Camping	Cruise	Hostel	Hotel	Motel	Resort	Total
Number	25	16	83	83	45	79	52	82	465

3. Data Analysis

This study adopts a mixed-methods approach combining quantitative and qualitative analysis to examine presupposition and implicature in travel advertising slogans. The analytical framework is based on Yule's (1996) and Levinson's (1983) classifications of presupposition triggers and Grice's (1975) theory of implicature, as extended by Horn (2004) and Levinson (2000).

3.1 Presupposition Analysis

Presupposition analysis involved identifying six types: existential, factive, lexical, structural, counterfactual, and non-factive. Following Tang (2019) and Ijabah & Argina (2022), each slogan was closely examined to detect linguistic features that encode assumed information. Truth conditions served as the primary criteria for presupposition identification—if the assumed information remained constant under negation (i.e., the assumption holds whether the statement is affirmed or denied), questioning, or conditional structures, it was classified as presuppositional content. For slogans containing multiple presupposition types (e.g., *Start your BC adventure with us*), all identified types were counted. These were then coded and tabulated to determine their frequency across the dataset and within each travel subcategory.

3.2 Implicature Analysis

Conventional implicatures were identified using Potts' (2005) framework, focusing on specific lexical triggers, while generalized and particularized conversational implicatures were categorized based on Grice's (1975) Cooperative Principle. Cancellability served as the key criterion for distinguishing implicatures from presuppositions and other meaning types—the meanings that could be explicitly canceled without contradiction were classified as implicatures, with conventional implicatures being non-cancelable and conversational implicatures being cancelable. These types were subsequently coded and tabulated similarly to the presupposition types.

To ensure the reliability of the categorizations of both presupposition and implicature types, the researchers independently coded the slogans following the above frameworks. A joint meeting was held to discuss cases where disagreement arose and each case was resolved with constructive consideration. This method of researcher triangulation helped improve the uniformity, transparency, and validity of the analysis, reducing individual bias in interpretation.

3.3 Persuasive Impact Analysis

To explore the persuasive role of these features, a qualitative content analysis—based on Kachin (2022)—was used to categorize the thematic content and rhetorical functions of presuppositions and implicatures. This integrated approach enables both systematic quantification and interpretive depth, offering insight into how implicit meanings support persuasive strategies in travel advertising. Such a mixed-methods design is especially suitable for capturing the complexity of pragmatic meaning in promotional discourse (Cook, 2001; Myers, 1994) and provides complementary perspectives on the research aims.

Research Results

1. Distribution of Presupposition and Implicature in Travel and Hospitality Advertising Slogans

The analysis of 465 travel and hospitality advertising slogans reveals distinctive patterns in the use of pragmatic features across the eight industry subcategories. Both presupposition and implicature serve as powerful rhetorical tools that enable advertisers to convey maximum information while maintaining the brevity essential to effective slogans.

1.1 Distribution of Presupposition Types

Four types of pragmatic presuppositions were identified across the dataset. Table 2 presents the distribution of presupposition types across the eight industry subcategories.

Table 2 Distribution of Presupposition Types by Industry Category (%)

Category	Existential	Lexical	Factive	Structural	Total Instances
Coach	16 (76.19%)	1 (4.76%)	-	4 (19.05%)	21
Train	11 (84.62%)	-	1 (7.69%)	1 (7.69%)	13
Camping	45 (66.18%)	4 (5.88%)	-	19 (27.94%)	68
Cruise	45 (80.36%)	6 (10.71%)	1 (1.79%)	4 (7.14%)	56
Hostel	28 (82.36%)	3 (8.82%)	-	3 (8.82%)	34
Hotel	45 (86.54%)	-	1 (1.92%)	6 (11.54%)	52
Motel	22 (78.57%)	1 (3.57%)	-	5 (17.86%)	28
Resort	46 (79.97%)	1 (1.69%)	2 (3.39%)	10 (16.95%)	59
Overall	258 (77.95%)	16 (4.83%)	5 (1.51%)	52 (15.71%)	331

Out of the 465 slogans analyzed, 331 contained presuppositions, while the remaining 134 did not exhibit identifiable presuppositional content. Among the identified presuppositions, existential presuppositions were the most prevalent (77.95%) across all categories. Triggered by definite articles, possessives, or proper nouns, they assume the existence of places, services, or experiences. For instance, “Start your BC adventure with us” (Motel) presumes such an adventure exists and asserts that it is accessible. Similarly, “The most beautiful place you’ll ever ski” (Resort) presumes that such a place exists and will be visited by the traveler. These slogans help make the advertised experiences appear relatable, available, and superior.

Structural presuppositions were less common (15.71%) but especially prevalent in camping slogans (27.94%). They often used *wh*-clauses (e.g., “Where life-long memories are made”) or *it*-clefts (e.g., “It’s the small things that make us different”) to highlight key elements like shared experiences or personal touches. In camping slogans, these structures focus on memory-making and togetherness. In hostels, emphasis on “small things” conveys authenticity and care, appealing to travelers who prioritize warmth over luxury.

Lexical presuppositions accounted for 4.83%, appearing mostly in cruise and hostel slogans. Triggered by verbs like *discover*, *stop*, *begin*, and adverbs like *again*, they imply temporal shifts or revived experiences. For instance, “Discover the cruise experience” presupposes an exciting and new journey ahead, while “We put the romance back into cruising” presumes romance once existed and is now restored. These cues create emotional narratives of wonder, nostalgia, and transformation—key themes in cruise marketing. Similarly, “Start your BC adventure with us” (Motel) also triggers a lexical presupposition through the verb *start*, implying that an experience is about to begin.

Factive presuppositions were rare (1.51%), typically triggered by *know* or *as ... as* constructions. Examples include “No one knows ski holidays like us” (Resort), assuming expertise, and “Journeys as great as the destination” (Train), presupposing the destination is great. These convey confidence and authority but may be used sparingly to avoid overly strong truth commitments that could seem exaggerated.

The absence of counterfactual or non-factive presuppositions can be attributed to intentional preference for certainty and optimism, traits essential for persuasive impact in travel marketing. It can be hypothesized that these presupposition types increase cognitive processing demands, which may reduce processing fluency and persuasive effectiveness in short advertising texts. This aligns with theoretical predictions from Relevance Theory that increased inferential complexity raises cognitive processing effort (Sperber & Wilson, 1995), and with evidence from empirical studies that processing disfluency reduces positive evaluations (Alter & Oppenheimer, 2009).

In conclusion, four types of presuppositions were identified: existential, structural, lexical, and factive. Presupposition functions as a means of conveying information implicitly in travel and hospitality slogans. Another mechanism for achieving implicit meaning is implicature, which is examined in the following section.

Table 3 Distribution of Implicature Types by Industry Category (%)

Category	Conventional	GCI	PCI	Total Instances
Coach	2 (10.53%)	7 (36.84%)	10 (52.63%)	19
Train	-	11 (91.67%)	1 (8.33%)	12
Camping	7 (12.50%)	22 (39.29%)	27 (48.21%)	56
Cruise	6 (8.33%)	40 (55.56%)	26 (36.11%)	72
Hostel	3 (8.82%)	17 (50.00%)	14 (41.18%)	34
Hotel	1 (1.79%)	18 (32.14%)	37 (66.07%)	56
Motel	3 (7.50%)	19 (47.50%)	18 (45.00%)	40
Resort	1 (1.61%)	32 (51.61%)	29 (46.77%)	62
Overall	23 (6.39%)	166 (50.58%)	162 (43.04%)	351

1.2 Distribution of Implicature Types

The analysis of implicature revealed three categories. Table 3 presents the distribution of implicature types across the eight industry subcategories.

Out of the 465 slogans analyzed, 351 contained implicatures, while the remaining 114 did not exhibit identifiable implicatures under the criteria applied in this study. Among the slogans containing implicatures, the distribution suggests that slogans overwhelmingly rely on Gricean implicatures, with slightly more instances of GCI (50.58%) than PCI (43.04%). Conventional implicature is relatively rare (6.39%).

The distribution can be divided into three groups. The first is GCI-dominant, including train and cruise. These categories relied on broadly accessible meaning based on general expectations and shared beliefs, often to reinforce status or reliability. Train slogans most strongly favor GCI (91.67%). For instance, “Eat, drink, and be happy. Ride the rails!” implies that the train service provides onboard meals and beverages. This reflects the train slogans in the data, many of which come from luxury or heritage brands aiming to reinforce prestige through familiarity. Similarly, cruise slogans (55.56% GCI) use broad expressions to affirm comfort and elegance. For example, “A signature of excellence” implies quality through the familiar connotation of “signature”, positioning the brand as distinctive from other cruise services.

Scalar implicature, where a stronger term is used to suggest that weaker alternatives do not apply was also found. For instance, “You will feel at home every time you return” (Camp) uses *every time* to imply consistent comfort, rather than *most* or *some of the time*. Similarly, “A motel for all seasons” (Motel) uses *all* to suggest suitability all year round, not just for *some* or *certain* seasons. These expressions help enhance reliability and wide appeal while still allowing for flexibility in meaning.

Hotel and coach slogans rely more on PCI to create emotional depth and reframe utilitarian offerings as experience-based travel. Hotel slogans used PCI most frequently (66.07%). A slogan like “Stay you.” does not explicitly state specific action, feeling, or experience. Rather, it requires subjective interpretation based on each reader’s context, expectations, or emotions. PCI allows hotels to build emotional and lifestyle branding, particularly in competitive markets. Coach slogans also rely on PCI (52.63%) despite their functional association. For example, “Putting New into Zealand.” uses

morphological strategies (Suvarnamani, Ratanakul, & Chiravate, 2024) to imply that the coach service offers a transformative experience that differs from the customer's prior travel experiences. This reflects the nature of the coach slogans in the data, most of which come from tour companies rather than transport operators, and use PCI to suggest enriching or transformative travel.

A relatively balanced mix of GCI and PCI appeared in camping, resort, motel, and hostel slogans, suggesting a need to address both practical and emotional appeals. For example, the GCI slogan "Camping, convenience & Eastern Shore beauty" communicates functionality and setting using simple and accessible language. In contrast, PCI examples like "Where life is worth camping" reinterpret idioms to suggest that camping is not just relaxing, but deeply meaningful. This kind of wordplay draws on familiar expressions to invite personal interpretation.

Conventional implicature appeared in only 6.39% of slogans, typically triggered by markers such as *still*, *yet*, *and*, *but*, and *even*. These elements contribute additional meaning independent of the main message. For example, "Where simple things are still important" (Motel) implies that simplicity has remained valued over time through the word, with *still* signaling persistence or continuity. Similarly, "We're small, but cute" (Camp) signals a contrast between modest size and appealing character through the word "but". Likewise, "Even better this year" (Resort) suggests that the service was already good and has further improved, with *even* signaling emphasis and an unexpected enhancement. These implicatures subtly guide interpretation and strengthen persuasive appeal by presenting the brand as consistent, improving, or pleasantly surprising.

Overall, all types of implicatures serve as pragmatic tools that let slogans imply more than they say, helping travel brands position themselves through reassurance, emotional resonance, or interpretive intrigue.

2. Information Content of Presuppositions and Implicatures in Travel Advertising Slogans

The analysis of the implicit meanings in travel and hospitality advertising slogans revealed distinctive patterns in the types of information communicated through presupposition and implicature, which strategically support the persuasive functions of tourism discourse across different industry segments.

2.1 Information Content of Presuppositions

The presuppositions in travel and hospitality slogans reflect five main types of information. These presuppositions help advertisers present certain ideas as already known or accepted, making the message feel more natural and persuasive. Table 4 shows how each information category is distributed across different presupposition types.

Table 4 Information Categories in Presuppositions

Information Category	Existential (%)	Lexical (%)	Factive (%)	Structural (%)	Share of all instances (%)
Customer Needs/Desires (33.84%)	67.86	5.36	0.89	25.91	33.84
Destination/Experience Attributes	77.08	8.33	1.04	13.54	29
Value Proposition	91.53	1.69	1.69	5.08	17.82
Service Quality	78.79	3.03	0	18.18	9.97
Brand Authority/Heritage	93.55	0	3.23	3.23	9.37

2.1.1 Customer Needs/Desires

Presuppositions about customer needs and desires were the most frequent (33.84%), mostly conveyed through existential (67.86%) and structural (25.91%) presuppositions. These slogans assume emotional motivations and lifestyle preferences as understood and accepted. For example, "Your life deserves a place like this to relax" (Camp) presupposes

that such a rejuvenating place exists and aligns with the traveler's deeper desires. "Whatever you want. Whenever you want it" (Hotel) implies customers' desires of personalized service and convenience. These presuppositions allow brands to connect directly with emotional needs without explicitly stating them. The highest proportions were found in camping (28.42%) and hotels (20.00%). These sectors often promote the themes of relaxation, convenience, and lifestyle alignment, making a presupposed emotional connection a key part of their persuasive strategy.

2.1.2 Destination/Experience Attributes

This category accounted for 29% and is mostly expressed through existential (77.08%), with smaller contributions from structural (13.54%) and lexical (8.33%) presuppositions. These slogans frame the environment or experience as something already real and established. For example, "A peaceful heaven in the woods" (Camp) presupposes the existence of a tranquil and scenic setting. "Where the skiers ski and the boarders ride" (Resort) uses structural and existential presuppositions to present the resort as naturally suited to both types of guests. Additionally, cruise slogans often feature lexical presuppositions through verbs like "discover" or "experience", which imply that something valuable already exists — as in "Discover a different world". Camp (25.64%) was the most prevalent in this category, followed by resorts (15.38%) and cruises (14.10%), reflecting their strong focus on atmosphere, setting, and activity-based appeal.

2.1.3 Value Proposition

Presuppositions related to value made up 17.82%, with almost all using existential presuppositions (91.53%). These slogans assume the existence of a superior benefit or offering, rather than arguing for it directly. For example, "The celebrity treatment" (Cruise) presupposes that exclusive service is part of the offer. "The Rockies's biggest, Canada's best" (Resort) presupposes both large scale and high national ranking. These structures present value as given, which makes the slogans sound confident rather than promotional. Cruise (27.27%) and resort (27.27%) dominate in this category, with hotel (14.55%) following — likely due to their need to justify premium pricing with exceptional offerings.

2.1.4 Service Quality

This category appeared in 9.97% of the data, primarily using existential (78.79%) and structural (18.18%) presuppositions. These slogans assume the high standards of hospitality or comfort without needing to make direct claims. For instance, "The spirit of northern hospitality" (Motel) presupposes that this regional style of service exists and is part of the experience. "When you're comfortable" (Hotel) assumes that comfort is already present. These help present quality service as a natural and built-in part of the stay. Hotel (37.93%) and motel (24.14%) dominated this category, where trust, attentiveness, and guest satisfaction are key selling points.

2.1.5 Brand Authority/Heritage

Brand reputation and heritage were the least frequent category (9.37%). Nearly all used existential structures (93.55%), which suggests a brand's reputation or longevity as a known fact. For example, "The world's most famous ocean liners" (Cruise) presupposes that the brand is globally recognized. "The experts to the Alps, since 1932" (Resort) positions the brand as a long-standing authority. These presuppositions offer credibility while avoiding overt bragging. This strategy was most used in resort (31.03%) and cruise (24.14%) advertising, where strong reputation and legacy are essential to customer trust.

2.2 Information Content of Implicatures

Implicatures in travel advertising slogans communicate six categories that function persuasively by inviting audience participation in meaning construction. Table 5 presents the distribution of these information categories across implicature types.

Table 5 Information Categories in Implicatures

Information Category	Conventional (%)	GCI (%)	PCI (%)	Share of all instances (%)
Sensory & Emotional Experience	8.75	43.75	47.50	23.05
Superiority & Competitive Claims	10.26	70.51	19.23	22.48
Transformation & Escape	0.00	15.63	84.38	18.44
Service Reliability & Personalization	3.85	71.15	25.00	14.99
Social Identity & Belonging	11.76	31.37	56.86	14.70
Expertise & Authenticity	4.55	54.55	40.91	6.34

2.2.1 Sensory & Emotional Experience

Slogans that appeal to the senses or evoke an emotional atmosphere were the most frequent (23.05%), mostly conveyed through particularized implicatures (47.5%) and generalized implicatures (43.75%), with a smaller share of conventional ones (8.75%). Rather than directly describing features, these slogans trigger feelings, mental images, and sensations. For example, “Wake up to the dawn chorus” (Camping) invokes the soundscape of nature, subtly constructing a tranquil setting without explicitly describing it. “The language of enjoyment” (Cruise) uses a metaphorical appeal to emotion, suggesting that pleasure is a universal and unspoken element of the journey. This category was most prevalent in camping (28.75%), followed by cruises (20%) and motels (15%), suggesting these experiences are often marketed through atmosphere and sensory richness.

2.2.2 Superiority & Competitive Claims

Claims of uniqueness, quality, or leadership were the second most prominent category (22.48%), predominantly communicated via generalized conversational implicatures (70.51%), with smaller contributions from particularized (19.23%) and conventional implicatures (10.26%). These slogans aim to assert an advantage without direct comparison, encouraging the audience to infer superiority. For instance, “The difference is Crystal clear” (Cruise) uses a brand pun to imply distinction, while “Number 1 for family skiing” (Resort) makes a confident claim of leadership. Such slogans allow brands to position themselves as top-tier without engaging in overt competition. This category appeared most frequently in resorts (29.49%) and cruises (23.08%), reflecting the competitiveness of these markets and their reliance on implied excellence.

2.2.3 Transformation & Escape

Implicatures conveying themes of emotional renewal, freedom, and departure from the ordinary made up 18.44% of the dataset. These meanings are most commonly communicated through particularized conversational implicatures (84.38%), followed by generalized implicatures (15.63%). Such slogans invite audiences to imagine personal change or escapism, often relying on subtle cues to stimulate this mental leap. For example, “Great place to get away from it all” (Camping) suggests emotional retreat and restoration through understated language. Similarly, “Discover a different world” (Cruise) implies that the journey will transport travelers into a new and enriching environment with no specific description of that world. These slogans prompt audiences to co-construct a narrative of transformation. Cruises (21.88%), resorts (20.31%), and camping (18.75%) made up the highest proportions, indicating a strong marketing emphasis on emotional escape and experiential renewal in these sectors.

2.2.4 Service Reliability & Personalization

Information about dependability, ease, and guest-focused service (representing 4.99%) was largely communicated through generalized implicatures (71.15%), with additional contributions from particularized (25%) and conventional

implicatures (3.85%). These slogans aim to reassure the audience that the experience will be smooth, practical, and customized. For example, “Your stay, your way” (Motel) emphasizes user control and comfort, while “In a city near you” (Hotel) offers a promise of convenient access and consistent availability. These slogans focus less on imagination and more on assurance and predictability. The highest shares were found in hotels (25%) and motels (21.15%), where ease, consistency, and customer care are essential to brand trust.

2.2.5 Social Identity & Belonging

Messages that imply alignment with certain lifestyles, communities, or personal values (accounting for 14.7%) were primarily delivered through particularized implicatures (56.86%), supported by generalized (31.37%) and conventional (11.76%) types. Such slogans speak indirectly to the traveler’s self-image, suggesting that the brand or setting aligns with who the customer is — or wants to be. For example, “For the free spirit traveler” (Hostel) appeals to independent and unconventional self-concepts, while “My kind of mountain” (Resort) personalizes the destination, reinforcing a sense of belonging or identity-based fit. This category was most prevalent in hostels (21.57%), hotels (19.61%), and camping (17.65%), all of which market themselves by appealing to shared values, familiarity, or lifestyle alignment.

2.2.6 Expertise & Authenticity

Implicatures highlighting authority, credibility, and cultural familiarity accounted for 6.34%. These meanings are primarily conveyed through generalized conversational implicatures (54.55%), followed by particularized implicatures (40.91%), and a small portion of conventional implicatures (4.55%). These slogans subtly invite assumptions about experience and insider knowledge. For instance, “The mountain experts” (Resort) evokes deep familiarity with alpine travel, signaling competence and trust through professional self-identification. “Taking the time since 1968” (Coach) builds credibility by highlighting the brand’s long-standing history, encouraging audiences to associate longevity with authenticity and quality. This type of messaging was most frequently found in cruises (27.27%), resorts (27.27%), and coach and hotel slogans (18.18% each), where competition often involves specialized knowledge or heritage, making appeals to expertise a valuable persuasive strategy.

Discussion and Conclusion

1. Discussion

The findings of this study offer significant insights into how travel and hospitality advertisers strategically employ pragmatic features to achieve persuasive objectives within minimal textual space. Our analysis reveals several key patterns that both align with and extend previous research in advertising pragmatics.

1.1 Presupposition as a Persuasive Strategy

The dominance of existential presuppositions across all subcategories (77.95%) supports the findings by Tang (2019), Ijabah & Argina (2022), and Zuhriani (2022), who also observed their prevalence in cosmetic advertising. However, our results show that presupposition types are not distributed uniformly but align with each subcategory’s marketing priorities. Hotels, trains, and hostels, for example, rely heavily on existential presuppositions to affirm brand presence and tangible amenities. More broadly, each presupposition type correlates with sector-specific value propositions—emotional authenticity in camping and hostels, service quality in hotels and motels, and experiential transformation in cruises and resorts.

Structural presuppositions are especially common in camping slogans (27.94%), where they help frame place-based memory-making and emotional fulfillment as assumed outcomes. These often encode customer needs and desires

implicitly, presenting them as shared values rather than overt claims. Lexical presuppositions, more frequent in cruise and hostel advertising, highlight destination appeal and personal transformation, supporting previous claims that such forms offer emotional and inferential depth (Ijabah & Argina, 2022; Zuhriani, 2022).

Factive presuppositions were rare (1.51%), reflecting advertisers' reluctance to assert truth-committed claims. This aligns with Tang (2019), who argued that such constructions may conflict with persuasive goals, and Zuhriani (2022), who found that emotionally suggestive forms are generally preferred. While Liu and Tian (2022) identified frequent factive presuppositions in airline advertising, where credibility is paramount, our findings suggest that other travel sectors avoid them for rhetorical flexibility.

Consistent with this trend, no counterfactual or non-factive presuppositions were observed. These forms introduce uncertainty or hypothetical meaning that may undermine the clarity and optimism central to persuasive messaging. As cited in Tang (2019), Zeng (2012) observed that such constructions often carry negative connotations, making them unsuitable for promotional contexts that rely on certainty and emotional appeal.

Overall, these findings demonstrate that presupposition in travel advertising is not merely a linguistic convenience but a deliberate persuasive strategy. Its distribution and content are closely aligned with each sector's value propositions, allowing advertisers to frame emotional appeals, brand authority, and service promises as shared assumptions—a pragmatic technique that corresponds with broader observations regarding indirectness in advertising communication (Cook, 2001; Leech, 1966; Myers, 1994).

1.2 Implicature and Contextual Meaning Construction

In line with Laosirattanachai & Panyametheekul (2018), who found that most tourism slogans relied on conversational implicature, our study confirmed the dominance of conversational implicatures, which comprised more than 93% of all identified implicatures. However, the distribution of implicature types across travel subcategories reflects sector-specific rhetorical strategies. This challenges assumptions in general advertising studies (e.g., Tang, 2019; Ijabah & Argina, 2022; Zuhriani, 2022), which treat implicature as a broadly applied persuasive device without considering sectoral variation.

In our study, grouping them into GCI-dominant (trains and cruises), PCI-dominant (hotels and coaches), and balanced-mix (camping, resorts, motels, and hostels) categories revealed that implicature is adapted to market positioning rather than used uniformly.

GCI-dominant sectors favor broadly accessible messages that emphasize reliability, comfort, and prestige, using familiar associations to reduce processing effort. In contrast, PCI-dominant categories—notably hotels and coaches—favor context-sensitive and interpretive messaging that supports emotional branding and lifestyle alignment. This is especially relevant for coach brands in the dataset, which mostly represent guided group tours, and thus market travel as a meaningful experience rather than mere transport. Balanced-mix sectors blend GCI and PCI to appeal simultaneously to practical needs and emotional or experiential values. These suggest a more deliberate rhetorical strategy than that found in generalized advertising discourse.

Implicature types also correlate with the content being conveyed, further reinforcing their strategic use. Sensory and emotional experience was most prominent in camping and cruises, while superiority claims dominated in resorts. Additional patterns—such as service reliability in hotels and motels, and social identity and belonging in hostels—demonstrate that implicature content aligns closely with each sector's core value proposition.

There was also a strong relationship between implicature type and information category. GCIs tend to express superiority, expertise, and reliability—messages that benefit from broad and context-independent inference. This corresponds with Tanaka's (1994) observation that advertisers tend to suggest superiority indirectly, prompting consumers

to infer brand excellence instead of asserting it explicitly. Such strategies increase persuasion while reducing the risks associated with overt self-promotion. This function is also emphasized by Geis (1982), who showed that advertisers often use features like vague quantifiers, incomplete comparisons, and implicit comparatives to imply superiority or broader claims, allowing them to avoid direct responsibility for the message.

In contrast, PCIs were generally used to convey transformation, emotion, and identity—messages that demand greater contextual sensitivity and engaged interpretation. This need for consumer participation supports the views of Myers (1994) and Cook (2001), who argued that inference-driven language encourages audiences to negotiate meaning based on shared cultural cues, which enhances deeper emotional involvement and facilitates more nuanced persuasion.

These findings extend prior models by showing that implicature in travel advertising functions not as a generic rhetorical device but as a flexible and context-sensitive strategy. Unlike general advertising studies, our analysis reveals that implicature is systematically tailored to sector-specific goals—guiding interpretation, evoking emotion, and reinforcing brand identity through strategic indirectness.

1.3 Reflections of People's Socio-Cultural Perspectives in the Tourism Context

While Hu's (2023) cross-linguistic comparison found cultural variations in presupposition usage between English and Chinese advertising, our study reveals that even within English-language travel slogans, pragmatic choices vary across subcategories in ways that reflect different audience values and social roles.

Presuppositions about customer needs and desires, the most common information type, were concentrated in sectors like camping and hotels, where emotional well-being and personal comfort are emphasized. These messages use existential and structural presuppositions to present such motivations as understood and accepted. This suggests that travel is promoted not just as a leisure activity, but as a widely accepted way to relax and take care of oneself.

Implicatures related to social identity and belonging, particularly in hostels, camping, and hotels, further reflect how brands appeal to specific lifestyles or values. These messages align with ideas of freedom, community, and authenticity, encouraging consumers to see the brand as part of their worldview.

By contrast, implicatures tied to expertise and authenticity—more common in cruises, resorts, and coach advertising—highlight credibility and experience. These signals matter most in sectors where trust, specialization, or legacy is a key part of brand appeal.

Together, these findings show that pragmatic features in travel slogans serve not just to convey messages efficiently, but to connect with shared values and reflect how people see themselves and others. This supports Myers's (1994) claim that advertisements invite audiences to make sense of meaning based on their cultural and social positionings. Similarly, Cook (2001) argued that shared assumptions and contextual cues shape pragmatic interpretation, enabling messages to resonate emotionally and socially.

Ultimately, presupposition and implicature help advertisers appeal to emotional needs, lifestyle identity, and social aspirations, making their messages feel both personally meaningful and culturally familiar.

1.4 Practical and Theoretical Implications

From a practical perspective, our findings offer insights for advertising professionals in the travel and hospitality industry, showing how presupposition and implicature can be strategically used to concisely deliver persuasive messages. The observed variation across subcategories provides a model for designing sector-specific messaging that reflects each segment's value proposition—comfort and predictability for hotels and motels; emotional resonance and transformation for cruises and camping; and social connection and lifestyle alignment for hostels.

Theoretically, this work extends pragmatic theory by showing how presupposition and implicature operate together, not in isolation. Rather than generic rhetorical devices, they function as adaptive tools that support powerful communication

through minimal wording. In doing so, they exemplify the principles of Relevance Theory (Sperber & Wilson, 1986), where communicative value is maximized while processing effort is minimized.

Together, these findings demonstrate that presupposition and implicature are not isolated linguistic features, but integrated elements of strategic communication. Their systematic deployment across subcategories plays a central role in differentiating brand messages and engaging audiences through subtle and value-aligned meaning.

Furthermore, the systematic patterns of pragmatic usage identified in this study offer valuable insights for business English pedagogy. This is especially beneficial in the Thai context, where tourism represents a major economic sector requiring sophisticated English communication skills. By incorporating these findings into business English curricula, Thai educators can better prepare students for the complex communicative demands of Thailand's international tourism industry, where success increasingly depends on the ability to craft strategically indirect yet compelling messages in English.

2. Conclusion

This study examined the strategic use of presupposition and implicature in travel and hospitality advertising slogans, analyzing both their distribution across eight industry subcategories—hotels, resorts, motels, hostels, cruises, camping, coach, and train travel—and the types of information they convey. The analysis of 465 slogans revealed systematic patterns in how these implicit meaning mechanisms support persuasive communication in tourism discourse.

Several limitations should be noted. First, while the mixed-methods approach enabled systematic categorization and the process of researcher triangulation helps with the transparency and validity, the identification and classification of presupposition and implicature types inevitably involved interpretive judgment. Despite procedures to enhance reliability, such as multiple coders and consensus discussions, some subjectivity may affect the reported distributions. Second, the study analyzed slogans as isolated textual units, excluding the broader multimodal and intertextual context in which they typically appear. This decontextualization may overlook additional layers of meaning. Third, the assumption of strategic intentionality is based on observed patterns rather than verified communicative intent. The study cannot confirm the actual persuasive effects of these pragmatic strategies without consumer-based reception data. Finally, although the study identifies presupposition and implicature as co-occurring persuasive resources, it does not systematically examine how they interact in implicit meaning construction for persuasive purposes.

These limitations point to several directions for future research. First, multimodal analyses could explore how textual slogans interact with visual and design elements in full advertisements, offering a more comprehensive view of meaning construction. Second, reception studies involving real consumers could assess how different presupposition and implicature types are cognitively processed and whether they produce the persuasive effects assumed in theory. Such research would provide empirical validation for the frameworks used here. Third, comparative studies across other product and service categories could reveal whether the pragmatic patterns observed in travel slogans are generalizable or specific to tourism discourse. Finally, future research could explore how these mechanisms jointly shape meaning construction, for instance by investigating whether one strategy primes or constrains the interpretation of the other in advertising discourse.

Despite its limitations, this study demonstrates how presupposition and implicature can be combined effectively to deliver powerful and concise messages in travel advertising. Practically, it suggests how advertisers can customize slogans to subcategories' emphasized values—comfort for hotels, transformation for cruises, and social appeal for hostels. Theoretically, it expands pragmatic theory by showing that its integrated use is consistent with Relevance Theory. Pedagogically, it supports business English instruction, especially in Thailand, by highlighting how implicit strategies are employed to achieve persuasiveness in professional tourism communication.

Acknowledgements

This research would not have been possible without the invaluable support. We would like to express our sincere gratitude to the Dean of the Faculty of Arts, Silpakorn University, Associate Professor Warangkana Nibhatsukit, Ph.D., whose encouragement greatly contributed to the success of this study. We also extend our appreciation to the English Department for providing the necessary resources and academic environment.

The authors used ChatGPT (GPT-4o; OpenAI, 2025) for language editing and grammar checking. The authors reviewed and take full responsibility for all content in the manuscript.

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