

Structural Patterns and Grammatical Complexity of Tourism Slogans

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Abstract

Tourism slogans play an important role in promoting tourism businesses, yet research on their syntactic features remains scarce. To fill this gap, this study investigated the syntax of 465 hospitality and travel slogans from the website “database of advertising slogans”, adopting Huddleston and Pullum's framework of structural patterns and Biber et al.'s framework of grammatical complexity. The results revealed that the structural patterns of most slogans were single-unit. Noun phrases, especially with attributive adjectives, were the most frequent phrase type, whereas clauses were mainly declarative or imperative. Most clauses were canonical in form, although some used packaging constructions to create emphasis. Regarding grammatical complexity, the slogans showed a tendency towards a compressed and implicit style, with dependent phrases being more frequent than dependent clauses. Adjective phrases as noun premodifiers were the most prevalent among the former, while non-finite complement clauses were the most common among the latter. These findings indicate that tourism slogans favor brevity, positivity, and memorability, strategically employing simple but implicit grammatical resources to persuade and engage audiences. Extending grammatical complexity theory beyond academic discourse, this study provides empirically grounded insight into how grammatical structures are selectively employed in professional promotional discourse, reflecting authentic usage patterns in applied contexts and informing the design of ESP teaching materials, particularly those focusing on tourism-slogan syntax.

Keywords: Advertising slogans, Grammatical complexity, Hospitality and travel, Structural pattern, Tourism

INTRODUCTION

Slogans are significant because they can function as “hooks” or “handles” in capturing the brand’s meaning and in representing its uniqueness (Dahlén & Rosengren, 2005; Keller, 1998). In particular, tourism slogans can effectively promote destinations by ensuring consumers believe and remember key information about them (Huang & Lin, 2017). Over the years, a growing body of research has delved into various aspects of language use in tourism slogans. For instance, Bochari (2011) and Lever and Abbas (2019) have focused on dissecting the rhetorical strategies in these slogans, identifying devices such as alliteration, rhyme, metaphor, and repetition. Kachin (2022) and Laosirattanachai and Panyametheekul (2018), on the other hand, have employed pragmatic concepts such as presuppositions and speech acts to analyze these slogans. Such research provides deeper insights into the persuasive communication strategies in destination marketing, thereby advancing knowledge across disciplines such as linguistics, marketing, and tourism studies.

Despite the breadth of existing literature, the grammatical features in this specialized form of communication remain underexplored. To fill this gap, the current study analyzes the structural patterns and grammatical complexity of tourism slogans, drawing upon frameworks proposed by Biber et al. (2021) and Huddleston and Pullum (2005). The analysis not only reveals the underlying syntactic features used to effectively convey messages but also offers practical insights for scholars in English for Specific Purposes (ESP), particularly by informing the design of teaching materials that focus on the syntactic patterns commonly found in tourism slogans.

LITERATURE REVIEW

1. *Empirical Studies*

1.1 Empirical Studies in Advertising Slogans: Several studies have examined **rhetorical strategies in advertising slogans**. Among these, Dubovičienė and Skorupa (2014) examined 100 global brand slogans, focusing on figurative language, sound techniques, and rhetorical devices. They found that figurative language dominated, led by puns, while simile, personification, and paradox were less common. Alliteration was the most frequently used sound technique, with rhythm and onomatopoeia least utilized, while repetition was the most frequent rhetorical device. Skorupa and Dubovičienė (2015) analyzed 55 commercial and 55 social English slogans randomly sampled from various media. The study identified sound techniques like rhyme, rhythm, alliteration, assonance, consonance, and onomatopoeia. Semantically, figurative language such as personification, simile, metaphor, hyperbole, metonymy, euphemism, polysemy, homonymy, and apostrophe characterized the slogans. Taken together, these studies highlight the importance of rhetorical and stylistic devices in advertising slogans; however, they focus mainly on identifying and classifying such devices across slogans in general, with little attention to how slogans in specific industries are structured grammatically or how grammatical forms are patterned.

On the other hand, few studies have syntactically analyzed slogans. Among these, Miller and Toman (2015) examined 140 service-business slogans from the 2011 Fortune 500, measuring syntactic complexity by the number of transformations. While previous research suggested that moderately complex slogans enhance brand recall and interpretation, the study found that most slogans were syntactically simple. Those that were moderately complex primarily used the imperative mood. This was explained by the command appeal tactic. While addressing syntax, the analysis focuses on counting transformations and does not examine other aspects of grammatical form, such

as how compressed or explicit the structures are. In addition, service-business slogans are treated as a single group, with no distinction made between different sectors.

More recently, corpus-based approaches have been applied to advertising and brand-related texts to uncover systematic lexicogrammatical patterns in promotional language. Among these, Faridi (2025) examined marketing-effective brand discourse using Biber's (1991) Multidimensional Analysis. The corpus comprised 225 English-language marketing texts (about 50,000 words) from five global brands—Coca-Cola, McDonald's, PepsiCo, Mondelez, and Unilever—collected from official websites, social media posts, and video advertisement transcripts published between 2020 and 2024. The findings show systematic variation across platforms and brands: advertisements were the most involved and persuasive, social media posts were largely informational, and website texts showed mixed features. PepsiCo and McDonald's used more involved language, whereas Mondelez and Unilever favored a more informational style, reflecting distinct branding strategies. Despite providing insight into variation across platforms and brands, the study does not examine slogans as a distinct genre or focus on how promotional texts are structured syntactically.

Although these studies provide valuable insights into advertising slogans in general, the linguistic and structural characteristics of slogans are likely to vary across sectors. This underscores the need for focused investigation of sector-specific slogans, such as tourism slogans, which are expected to employ distinct grammatical and stylistic strategies.

1.2 Empirical Studies on Tourism Advertising Discourse: Several studies have investigated tourism slogans with the focus on rhetorical devices and pragmatic analysis. To start with, Bochari (2011) analyzed figures of speech and illocutionary acts in 60 slogans from 55 locations. The results revealed that alliteration and personification were the most prevalent. Repetition and rhyme made the slogans more memorable, whereas personification, hyperbole, simile, and oxymoron enhanced attractiveness and imagination. Assertive, the most common illocutionary act, was used to emphasize the conditions or qualities of the locations. Lever and Abbas (2019) employed rhetorical analysis, semiotics, and thematic reviews to examine 157 country slogans. Chimes (a form of repetition) were the most frequent rhetorical operation. Destabilization involved oppositions, paradoxes, similarities, puns, and metaphors, while noticeable substitution included claim extremity and hyperbole. Main themes portrayed countries as human traits; metaphor/dramatic portrayals; individuality and concept of self; comparison/contrast with others; and discovery, magic, and mystery. Additionally, the analyzed slogans were mostly ambiguous. Despite their focus on tourism slogans, both studies primarily examine rhetorical, semantic, and pragmatic features, providing limited insight into how such meanings are realized through grammatical structure. In particular, they do not address how tourism slogans differ in terms of syntactic patterning or degrees of grammatical compression and explicitness.

Laosirattanachai and Panyametheekul (2018) analyzed 113 tourism slogans from *touristvstraveller.wordpress.com* using pragmatic theories. They revealed that maxims, presuppositions, and speech acts were necessary for tourism slogan interpretation, with conversational implicature playing a huge role. The functions of presuppositions were conciseness, interest, enlargement, emphasis, euphemism, concealment, persuasion, and self-protection. Moreover, most tourism slogans functioned as indirect invitations. Similarly, Kachin (2022) examined 34 tourism slogans from the Tourism Authority of Thailand using speech act theory. The slogans were classified

into four themes: “Proud of being Thai,” “Domestic tourism can help promote our home country,” “How to be a quality tourist,” and “Tourism makes a happy life.” Four types of speech acts were found: assertives, directives, expressives, and declaratives. These studies, however, focus primarily on pragmatic interpretation and illocutionary functions, offering limited insight into how such meanings are grammatically encoded. They do not address how syntactic structure contributes to conciseness, indirectness, or persuasive force, nor how tourism slogans vary in terms of grammatical compression and explicitness, leaving slogan syntax largely underexplored.

Huadhom and Trakulkasemsuk (2017) examined 100 tourism slogans from touristvstraveller.wordpress.com, analyzing words, phrases, clauses, and sentences. The findings showed that the most frequent structure was a noun phrase in the form of Adj + Ns (frequently country names), which effectively conveyed national identity in a concise, catchy, and engaging style. Most sentences were declarative, offering complete information and inviting readers’ acceptance. Imperatives giving commands were also frequent. Although the study provides valuable descriptive insights into the structural forms of tourism slogans, their analysis remains largely classificatory and does not systematically account for variation in grammatical style or levels of syntactic compression.

Beyond slogan-focused research, recent corpus-based studies have examined tourism advertising discourse more broadly, offering insights into dominant lexical, affective, and interpersonal features of promotional language. For example, Azwan et al. (2025) examined language commodification in digital tourism promotion. Their corpus comprised 39,135 tokens drawn from promotional texts on 18 official Indonesian tourism websites published between 2023 and 2024. Using AntConc, they analyzed word frequency, collocation, concordance, and semantic prosody. The findings show that tourism discourse is dominated by affective and visually oriented vocabulary (e.g., *indah* (beautiful), *pengalaman* (experience), *unik* (unique), *spot*, and *instagramable*), supporting branding strategies centered on emotional appeal, visual-social imagery, exclusivity, cultural authenticity, and comfort, and highlighting language as a strategic marketing resource in tourism discourse.

With a narrower analytical focus, Zein and Afdal (2024) investigated the use of the personal pronoun *you* in digital tourism discourse through a corpus-based analysis of articles from the Lonely Planet website. The study shows that *you* functions as a persuasive device that directly addresses readers, creates a conversational tone, and personalizes the travel experience. Its frequency varies across destinations, with higher use in experience- or adventure-oriented contexts. Qualitative analysis illustrates how *you* guides readers through imagined activities and encourages identification with destinations, highlighting the interpersonal role of pronouns in online tourism marketing.

Pan et al. (2026) specifically examines tourism slogans as compact persuasive texts in destination branding. The study analyzes 186 official tourism slogans from national and regional tourism organizations worldwide. Affect was measured using the ANEW framework (valence, arousal, dominance) and analyzed through statistical comparison and cluster analysis, supplemented by thematic and linguistic analysis. The findings show significantly higher valence and dominance, with moderately higher arousal, indicating a strong positive and empowering affective profile. Thematic patterns center on action, positivity, and nature, while prominent linguistic features include pronouns, sound devices, figurative language, imperatives, and personification, enhancing slogan memorability and persuasive appeal.

While these studies advance understanding of tourism discourse through corpus-based methods, they primarily focus on lexical choice, affective meaning, or individual linguistic features, rather than the syntactic organization of tourism slogans as a distinct, highly compressed genre.

In summary, although a growing body of research has examined the language of tourism slogans from rhetorical, pragmatic, and affective perspectives (Bochari, 2011; Kachin, 2022; Laosirattanachai & Panyametheekul, 2018; Lever & Abbas, 2019; Pan et al., 2026), syntactic analysis remains relatively limited. One notable exception is Huadhom and Trakulkasemsuk (2017), who provide a descriptive account of syntactic forms commonly found in tourism slogans. However, their study focuses on national tourism slogans, which primarily function as identity markers for destinations. This functional orientation differs from that of hospitality and travel slogans, which promote services and experiences, suggesting potentially different communicative and grammatical demands. More importantly, their analysis conceptualizes syntax primarily in terms of identifying and classifying grammatical structures, without examining how such structures pattern systematically or vary in terms of grammatical style, particularly structural organizations as well as degrees of compression and explicitness. As a result, existing research offers limited theoretical insight into how syntactic simplicity or complexity contributes to persuasive meaning-making in tourism advertising.

To the best of the researchers' knowledge, no prior studies have explored the analysis of diverse categories of tourism slogans (e.g., coach travel, train travel, camping, cruise, hostel, hotel, motel, resort) using a framework that integrates structural patterns and grammatical complexity. Drawing on Huddleston and Pullum's (2005) and Biber et al.'s (2021) frameworks, this study, therefore, aims to address this gap by examining hospitality and travel slogans, focusing on the following research questions:

- 1) What are the structural patterns of the tourism slogans?
- 2) What are the grammatical complexities of the tourism slogans?

2. Theoretical Concepts Related to the Present Study

2.1 Structural Patterns: Grammatical units can be categorized based on their size, ranging from morphemes and words to phrases, clauses, and sentences (Biber et al., 2002). Huddleston and Pullum (2005) highlighted that the most syntactically straightforward sentences take the form of a single clause, exemplified by (1a) and (1b). The fundamental type of clause comprises a subject (Subj) followed by a predicate (Pred), as depicted in (2a) and (2b) respectively.

- (1) a. Tourists linger.
b. Travelers wander.
- (2) a. *Subj*[Tourists] *Pred*[linger].
b. *Subj*[Travelers] *Pred*[wander].

Often, the subject and/or predicate include multiple words, yet they retain a noun and a verb as their primary components.

- (3) a. *Subj*[Spirited tourists] *Pred*[linger by the scenic shore].
b. *Subj*[Adventurous travelers] *Pred*[wander through the captivating landscape].

Expressions such as *spirited tourists* and *adventurous travelers* are noun phrases headed by nouns. Similarly, *linger by the scenic shore*, and *wander through the captivating landscape* are verb phrases headed by verbs. The head of a phrase is the most important element, as it determines the phrasal category. The other elements are dependents.

In addition to noun phrase (NP) and verb phrase (VP), phrasal categories include adjective phrase (AdjP), and preposition phrase (PP), as illustrated in (4).

- (4)
- a. Noun phrase (NP): *tourists, spirited tourists, travelers, adventurous travelers*
 - b. Adjective phrase (AdjP): *spirited, cheerfully spirited, adventurous, boldly adventurous*
 - c. Verb phrase (VP): *linger, linger by the scenic shore, wander, joyfully wander*
 - d. Preposition phrase (PP): *by the scenic shore, through the captivating landscape*

A linguistic unit considered to be larger than a phrase is a clause (CL). A wide variety of clause structures exists, but two primary types are canonical and non-canonical clauses. According to Huddleston and Pullum (2005), canonical clauses comprise a subject followed by a predicate. The subject is usually (but not invariably) an NP, while the predicate is invariably a VP. Non-canonical clauses differ from canonical ones in one or more dimensions, as demonstrated in Table 1.

Table 1: Canonical and Non-Canonical Clauses (Huddleston & Pullum 2005)

Polarity	Polarity refers to the system that contrasts positive and negative clauses. Positive clauses are considered canonical, whereas negative clauses are non-canonical. C <i>We explore the world.</i> NC <i>We do not explore the world.</i>
Clause type	Canonical clauses are declarative. Clauses of any other type, i.e., interrogative and imperative, are considered non-canonical. C <i>We explore the world.</i> NC <i>Do you explore the world? Explore the world!</i>
Subordination	All canonical clauses are main clauses. Subordinate clauses typically function as dependent elements within a larger clause. C <i>You stay for the experience.</i> NC <i>We know <u>that you stay for the experience</u>.</i>
Coordination	One clause may be coordinated with another, normally involving a coordinator like <i>and</i>, <i>or</i>, and <i>but</i>. Canonical clauses are non-coordinated, while coordinate clauses are non-canonical. C <i>I've been to paradise. I like it.</i> NC <i><u>I've been to paradise</u> and <u>I like it</u>.</i>
Information packaging	Canonical clauses arrange information in the most syntactically basic way. Constructions that differ from canonical clauses (e.g., passive, extraposition, cleft) are considered non-canonical clauses. C <i>That you stayed home is unfortunate.</i> NC <i>It's unfortunate that you stayed home.</i>
Combination of non-canonical features	Non-canonical clause types can combine, allowing a non-canonical clause to differ from a canonical one in multiple ways simultaneously. C <i>We make your holiday booking a pleasurable experience.</i> NC <i>We believe that booking your holiday will not be the same again.</i>

Note: C = canonical clause; NC = non-canonical clause

2.2 Grammatical Complexity: Biber et al. (2021) introduced a grammatical complexity framework that delineates between elaborated and explicit discourse styles versus compressed and implicit ones. This framework has been employed in studies focusing on grammatical features within academic written discourse (Hernandez, 2022; Hernandez & Genuino, 2022). Importantly, the versatility of this framework allows its application to the present study.

The concept revolves around finite and non-finite dependent clauses operating in three distinct functions, as illustrated in (a)–(c). In each case, these functions embody an elaborated and explicit discourse style.

- (a) as adverbial clauses, modifying the main verb;
- (b) as complement clauses, filling in the direct object position of a verb; and
- (c) as relative clauses, modifying a head noun.

Conversely, dependent phrases serve as adverbials and noun modifiers, exemplified in (a)–(e). Each instance encapsulates a compressed and implicit discourse style.

- (a) prepositional phrases as adverbials;
- (b) attributive adjectives as noun premodifiers;
- (c) appositive noun phrases as noun postmodifiers;
- (d) nouns as noun pre-modifiers; and
- (e) prepositional phrases as noun postmodifiers.

Table 2 demonstrates the grammatical complexity framework (Biber et al., 2021) with examples provided.

Table 2: Grammatical complexity framework

Dependent clauses (elaborated and explicit style / EE style)	Finite adverbial clauses	<i>Ski it if you can.</i>
	Finite complement clauses	<i>We'll make sure you see the best.</i>
	Finite relative clauses	<i>It's the best fun hard work can be.</i>
	Non-finite adverbial clauses	<i>Find us to get lost.</i>
	Non-finite complement clauses	<i>Our guests keep coming back.</i>
	Non-finite relative clauses	<i>The only thing missing here is you.</i>
Dependent phrases (compressed and implicit style / CI style)	Preposition phrases as adverbials	<i>Life's better at the garden.</i>
	Attributive adjectives as noun premodifiers	<i>We like sleepy people.</i>
	Appositive noun phrases as noun postmodifiers	<i>The Rockie's biggest, Canada's best.</i>
	Preposition phrases as noun postmodifiers	<i>A motel for all seasons.</i>
	Nouns as noun premodifiers	<i>Everyone deserves a snow day.</i>

2.3 Analytical Research Framework for the Present Study:

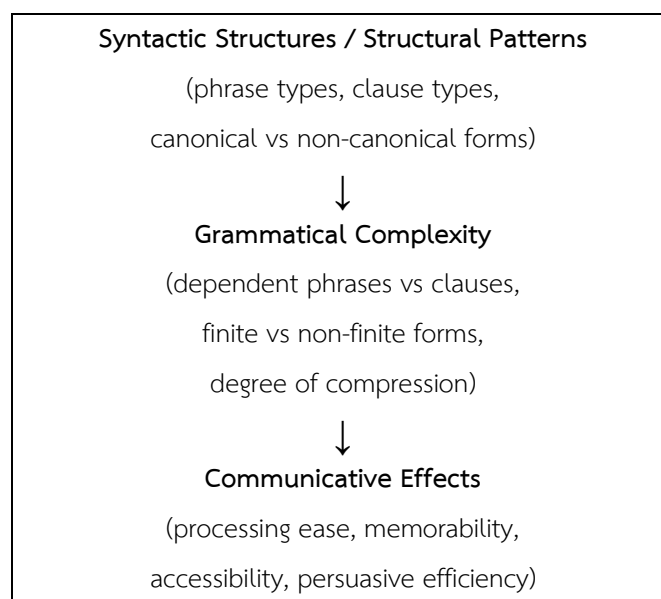


Figure 1: Analytical Framework Linking Structural Patterns, Grammatical Complexity, and Communicative Effects in Tourism Slogans

Figure 1 presents the research framework guiding this study. The framework adopts a hierarchical approach in which structural patterns form the primary level of analysis, grammatical complexity is treated as a derived property emerging from these structures, and communicative effects constitute the interpretive level. Structural patterns are analyzed using Huddleston and Pullum's (2005) framework, while grammatical complexity is assessed following Biber et al. (2021).

Huddleston and Pullum's (2005) framework of structural patterns is adopted because it offers a comprehensive, theoretically explicit model of English syntax that can be applied across registers. It enables fine-grained analysis of phrase types and clause types, including canonical and non-canonical clause constructions (e.g., passives, clefts, interrogatives, imperatives, and dislocation), making it suitable for identifying structural patterns in highly compressed texts such as tourism slogans.

Biber et al.'s (2021) framework is used to examine grammatical complexity from a functional, usage-based perspective, focusing on the distribution of dependent phrases and clauses. Although frequently applied to academic writing (e.g., Hernandez, 2022; Hernandez & Genuino, 2022), its emphasis on grammatical compression and processing efficiency makes it equally relevant to advertising discourse, where rapid comprehension is a key communicative goal.

By integrating these two frameworks, the present study is able to account for both the structural organization and the degree of grammatical complexity of tourism slogans, providing a principled basis for interpreting how syntactic form contributes to communicative efficiency and persuasive meaning-making in tourism advertising.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

1. Population and Samples

1.1 Population: The target population of this study consisted of tourism advertising slogans available in online databases and public sources.

1.2 Samples: The study employed purposive sampling by selecting 465 tourism slogans from the website Database of Advertising Slogans (Textart, 2024). Textart was selected because it is a curated collection of advertising slogans drawn from public sources and classified by industry, which allows for systematic identification of tourism- and travel-related slogans. The database has been used in previous advertising research (e.g., Strutton & Roswinanto, 2014), supporting its suitability as a data source. All slogans within the eight subcategories under Tourism & Travel (coach travel, train travel, camping, cruise, hostel, hotel, motel, and resort) were included to ensure internal consistency and to avoid selective exclusion within categories. The slogans represent international tourism advertising from multiple regions, including North America, Europe, Asia, Africa, Oceania, South America, and the Middle East, allowing for broad cross-regional coverage while maintaining a manageable and clearly defined dataset. The distribution of the sample is shown in Table 3.

Table 3: The tourism slogan samples

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

As the study employs purposive sampling, the dataset is not intended to be statistically representative of all tourism slogans worldwide. Instead, it is designed to support detailed analysis of structural patterns and grammatical complexity within a clearly defined corpus.

2. Research Instrument

The primary instruments for data analysis included Excel files, used to store and organize the collected slogans and manual coding by the researchers to classify syntactic forms. The analytical framework was based on Huddleston and Pullum's (2005) categorization of phrasal and clausal structures and Biber et al.'s (2021) description of grammatical features related to complexity.

For cases in which grammatical classification is debated in the literature, consistent decision rules were applied following Biber et al.'s framework. Specifically, past participle (V3) and present participle (V-ing) constructions functioning as postmodifiers (e.g., "*Luxury. **Redefined.***"; "*Nice people. **Taking care of nice people.***") were classified as non-finite relative clauses rather than adjective phrases. Similarly, to-infinitive and gerund constructions functioning as verb complements (e.g., "*You'll want **to stay** forever.*"; "*Luxury goes **exploring.***") were treated as non-finite complement clauses rather than noun phrases. These criteria ensured consistency in distinguishing between clausal and phrasal structures across the dataset.

To enhance the reliability of the categorizations, the researchers conducted manual coding using shared analytical criteria derived from Biber et al. (2021) and Huddleston and Pullum (2005). Throughout the coding process, potentially ambiguous cases were jointly reviewed and discussed until consensus was reached. This

consensus-based approach was used to ensure consistency in the classification of syntactic structures across the dataset. As inter-coder agreement was established through discussion rather than quantified using a statistical measure, this represents a methodological limitation of the study; however, the use of explicit decision rules and repeated cross-checking of ambiguous cases helped to minimize inconsistency in the analysis.

3. Collection of Data

The data collection and analysis followed three steps. First, all 465 slogans were compiled into Excel files. Next, the researchers manually coded the syntactic forms. Then, frequency counts were calculated, and the findings were qualitatively interpreted and discussed.

RESULTS

1. Structural patterns

1.1 Single-unit and multi-unit slogans: The present study adapted Surapongraktrakool's (2023) coding to classify single-unit and multi-unit slogans. A single-unit slogan was defined as a slogan ending with one punctuation mark, for example, a noun phrase such as *"Symbol of satisfaction."* and a subordinate clause such as *"Where your dreams become reality."* In contrast, a multi-unit slogan was one with more than one punctuation mark, for example, clauses such as *"Big agency deals. Small agency feel."* and phrases such as *"Carnival. The fun ships."*

The results show that the majority of tourism slogans were single-unit (87.74%). Multi-unit slogans consisted of two or three units and included combinations of only phrases or only clauses (12.26%) (e.g., *"Seabourn. Intimate. Luxury."*; *"We live it. We love it. We know it."*), as well as combinations of phrases and clauses (e.g., *"Tajness. You can feel it with your eyes closed."*). In terms of length, the mean number of words per slogan was 5.13, with a range of 2 to 12 words.

1.2 Types of phrases and clauses: The analysis shows that tourism slogans were almost evenly divided between phrases and clauses, with a strong dominance of noun phrases and clauses that can function as complete sentences.

Table 4 presents the distribution of phrase and clause types used in tourism slogans, allowing comparison between phrasal and clausal realizations and their internal subtypes.

Table 4: The proportions and examples of phrase and clause types

Types of Phrases and Clauses		Example	Number	Percentage
Phrase 53.28% (n = 284)	NP	The Legend. Symbol of satisfaction. Hospitality as warm as the Arizona sun!	241	84.86
	AdjP	Clean & friendly! Pure, simple and real... deep. Even better this year.	25	8.80
	PP	To the soul of the South seas. In a city near you. For people with a passion for skiing and riding.	18	6.34

Table 4: The proportions and examples of phrase and clause types (cont.)

Types of Phrases and Clauses		Example	Number	Percentage
Clause 46.72% (n = 249)	A clause that <u>can</u> be a complete sentence	Tradition is back in style. Relax in the sunshine of the west. Do you live an Intercontinental life?	191	76.71
	A clause that <u>cannot</u> be a complete sentence	Where your dreams become reality. Traveling with the professionals! Designed for you.	58	23.29

As seen in Table 4, phrases can be categorized into NP, AdjP, and PP, while clauses can be categorized into a clause that can be a complete sentence and a clause that cannot be a complete sentence. The number of phrases and clauses did not differ greatly (53.28% and 46.72% respectively). Most phrases were noun phrases (84.86%), while the majority of clauses were those that could be a complete sentence (76.71%).

Overall, noun phrases and complete clauses accounted for the majority of syntactic realizations in the dataset.

1.3 Canonical and non-canonical clauses: The results indicate that clauses in tourism slogans overwhelmingly displayed canonical features.

Table 5 summarizes the distribution of canonical and non-canonical features among clauses that can function as complete sentences, examining polarity, clause type, coordination, and information packaging.

Table 5: Canonical and non-canonical clauses

Dimensions of Canonical and Non-Canonical Clauses		Example	Number (191)	Percentage
Polarity Clause types	Positive (canonical)	You will feel at home every time you return! The memories are yours, the pleasure's ours... Staying is believing.	178	93.19
	Negative (non-canonical)	We're not like the rest... No one knows ski holidays like us! Booking your ski holiday will never be the same again.	13	6.81
Clause types	Declarative (canonical)	We know 100% of New Zealand. We'll make sure you see the best. You're more than welcome. We invite you to try it.	98	51.31
	Interrogative (non-canonical)	Do you live an Intercontinental life? What are you up for?	2	1.05
	Imperative (non-canonical)	Travel your world with us. Eat, drink and be happy. Ride the rails! Come for the weather... Stay for the experience.	91	47.64

Table 5: Canonical and non-canonical clauses (cont.)

Dimensions of Canonical and Non-Canonical Clauses		Example	Number (191)	Percentage
Coordination	Not a coordinate cl. (canonical)	We live it. We love it. We know it. Life is adventure... let the adventure begin! Every day is different.	189	98.95
	A coordinate cl. (non-canonical)	There's camping. And there's KOA. I've been to Paradise and I liked it!	2	1.05
Information packaging	Not an information packaging construction (canonical)	Relax... You're with us! We make it simple. This is my Steamboat. We are the best for a good night's rest!	166	86.91
	An information packaging construction (non-canonical)	Where life-long memories are made . It's the small things that make us different. Tajness. You can feel it with your eyes closed. From here , it's another world. Ski it if you can .	25	13.09

As demonstrated in Table 5, the clauses that can be complete sentences can be analyzed in terms of polarity, clause types, coordination, and information packaging. Regarding polarity, most clauses were positive (93.19%). The most common clause type was declarative (51.31%), followed by imperative (47.64%). Only two interrogatives were found, and there were no exclamatives. Coordinate clauses were rare. Moreover, most slogans were not in a special information packaging construction (86.91%).

In summary, most slogans consisted of single units, with noun phrases as the most prevalent phrase type, and the majority of clauses exhibiting canonical features across polarity, clause type, coordination, and information packaging.

2. Grammatical complexity

The analysis shows that in tourism slogans, dependent phrases (83.52%), such as “*Travel your world **with us**.*” and “*The **first global cruise line**.*”, were far more frequent than dependent clauses (16.48%), such as “***When you just have to get away**... Let us take you there.*” and “*The best **that suits your needs**.*” Among the dependent phrases, adjective and prepositional phrases accounted for the majority of cases.

2.1 Phrases: Table 6 presents the distribution and examples of dependent phrase types identified in the dataset.

Table 6: Types of dependent phrases

Dependent phrases (n = 456)			
Type	Example	Number	Percentage
PP as adverbial	Taking the time, since 1968 . High-class for the budget traveler .	41	8.99
PP as complement	Uniting you with nature . Nobody's closer to the magic .	78	17.11

Table 6: Types of dependent phrases (cont.)

Dependent phrases (n = 456)			
Type	Example	Number	Percentage
PP as N post modifier	Motorcoach travel at its finest . We have the perfect cruise for you!	83	18.20
Attributive Adj as N premodifier	The world's most beautiful voyage. Your local coach holiday people.	182	39.91
Adj as N postmodifier	Rain or sun always fun! Hospitality as warm as the Arizona sun!	6	1.32
N as N premodifier	Britain's favorite rail tour operator! Family atmosphere campground and pets allowed.	64	14.04
Appositive NP as N postmodifier	The Rockies's biggest, Canada's best . Silver Star. My mountain .	2	0.44

According to Table 6, the dependent phrases that occurred in the tourism slogans can be further classified into 7 types. Prepositional phrases appeared most frequently (44.3%), followed quite closely by adjective phrases (41.23%). On the other hand, noun phrases as a pre-modifier or a post-modifier of other noun phrases were less common (14.48%). Regarding subtypes, adjective phrases as a pre-modifier of noun phrases were the most dominant (39.91%), followed by prepositional phrases as a noun postmodifier (18.20%), and prepositional phrases as complements (17.11%), respectively. Appositive noun phrases as a noun postmodifier were scarce.

Overall, dependent phrases in the dataset were mainly adjective phrases and prepositional phrases, while other phrase types occurred less frequently.

2.2 Clauses: The analysis shows that dependent clauses occurred less frequently than dependent phrases and were predominantly realized as non-finite constructions.

Table 7 summarizes the types and examples of dependent clauses identified in the tourism slogans.

Table 7: Types of dependent clauses

Dependent clauses (n = 90)			
Type	Example	Number	Percentage
Finite adverbial clause	You haven't lived until you've cruised . Once you find us , you will never want to leave.	9	10
Finite complement clause	We'll make sure you see the best . Your dream holiday is now closer than you think .	4	4.44
Finite relative clause	Tours you're going to love . The place where kids want to take their parents .	10	11.11
Non-finite adverbial clause	Find us to get lost .	1	1.11
Non-finite complement clause	We love to ski . We invite you to try it .	42	46.67
Non-finite relative clause	The only thing missing here is you . Small ship cruising done perfectly .	8	8.89
Non-finite clause as noun postmodifier	Great place to get away from it all .	16	17.78

As shown in Table 7, the dependent clauses from the tourism slogans can be further classified into 7 types. The majority of the dependent clauses were non-finite (74.45%). Non-finite clauses as a complement appeared most frequently (46.67%). This was followed by non-finite clauses as modifiers, i.e., as adverbial clauses, relative clauses, and noun postmodifiers (27.78 %). On the other hand, finite clauses occurred less (25.55%), with a smaller proportion of finite clauses as modifiers (21.11%), i.e., adverbial and relative clauses, compared to their non-finite counterparts. Moreover, noun clauses and comparative clauses as finite complements were rare (4.44%).

Taken together, the distribution of dependent clauses showed a strong predominance of non-finite forms and a limited use of finite clause types.

In summary, in terms of grammatical complexity, dependent phrases, especially adjective phrases and prepositional phrases, were more common than dependent clauses, and non-finite clauses were more frequent than finite clauses.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The predominance of single-unit slogans suggests that advertisers design tourism slogans for brevity and memorability. This finding supports Miller and Toman's (2015) observation that advertising language tends to avoid unnecessary complexity and keep messages short. More broadly, it reflects cognitive constraints on information processing, supporting Miller's (1956) notion that people can only handle around seven (± 2) pieces of information at once. The present findings suggest that such cognitive constraints are accommodated not only through shorter length, but through specific grammatical strategies, as discussed below.

In terms of structural choice, the dominance of short noun phrases is similar to the findings of Huadhom and Trakulkasemsuk (2017), in which such structures serve as compact, headline-like expressions that highlight destination attributes or services in a concise and catchy way.

The prevalence of positive forms is in line with Leech's (1966) "positive copy rule," which notes that advertising tends to avoid negation and negativity. The few negative clauses that did appear employed absolute negators such as *not* or *no one*. These can be linked to Strutton and Roswinanto's (2014) concept of "universal quantifiers," in which advertisers use overgeneralization to portray their services as better or unique.

In terms of clause types, tourism slogans prioritize declarative and imperative forms, a pattern that aligns with earlier findings (Huadhom & Trakulkasemsuk, 2017; Miller & Toman, 2015) and reflects the advertising goal of conveying clear, positive messages rather than posing questions or emphasizing negative content (Bruthiaux, 1996). Although declaratives appear as statements of fact, they often function pragmatically as indirect invitations, expressing commitment (e.g., "*You'll love where we take you.*"), hospitality (e.g., "*The memories are yours, the pleasure's ours.*"), or encouragement (e.g., "*It's your turn.*"). Regardless of their types, they share the persuasive purpose of inviting readers to use the service, similar to Laosrirattanachai and Panyametheekul's (2018) finding that most tourism slogans act as indirect invitations.

The frequent use of imperatives reinforces their role as a persuasive strategy in tourism advertising, creating a sense of direct engagement between advertiser and audience (Leech, 1966; Myers, 1994). The omission of "please" in these imperatives strengthens their force, presenting the suggested action as beneficial to the customer rather than a request from the advertiser, aligning with the "command appeal" commonly observed in advertising

discourse (Rothschild, 1987, as cited in Miller & Toman, 2015). Interrogatives occur only marginally and function rhetorically, serving to stimulate curiosity and foreground selling points rather than to elicit information, a pattern consistent with the findings of Huadhom & Trakulkasemsuk (2017).

The limited use of clause coordination emphasizes a strong preference for conciseness in tourism slogans, aligning with Bruthiaux's (1996) observation that coordinated clauses are rare in advertising registers. Similarly, most slogans avoid marked information-packaging constructions, favoring canonical forms for ease of processing. When non-canonical structures do occur, they function selectively to create emphasis or foreground key elements without substantially increasing length. For instance, clefts such as "*It's the best fun hard work can be!*" highlight a specific feature, while Left dislocation appears in "*Tajness. You can feel it with your eyes closed,*" where the coined word *Tajness* is foregrounded. These cases show how advertisers occasionally depart from canonical forms to focus attention without greatly increasing length.

While previous studies have identified the frequent use of declarative and imperative clauses in tourism slogans (e.g., Huadhom & Trakulkasemsuk, 2017; Miller & Toman, 2015; Pan et al., 2026), these analyses largely treat clause types as isolated categories. The present study extends this line of research by demonstrating that such clauses overwhelmingly occur as part of a broader canonical clause construction, characterized by positive polarity, basic clause types, minimal coordination, and unmarked information packaging. This pattern suggests that tourism slogans favor not only certain clause types, but a structurally conservative and highly accessible grammatical configuration, which supports rapid processing and persuasive clarity in promotional contexts.

In terms of grammatical complexity, tourism slogans rely far more heavily on dependent phrases than on dependent clauses, reflecting a preference for compressed expression. Heavy noun modification, especially attributive adjectives and prepositional phrases, allows information to be packed efficiently into short units. Such patterns are characteristic of advertising English, where premodification is a key strategy for conveying evaluative meaning economically, especially through superlative and evaluative adjectives (Leech, 1966), and they align with previous findings that Adj + N constructions dominate tourism slogans (Huadhom & Trakulkasemsuk, 2017).

Dependent clauses occur less frequently than dependent phrases in tourism slogans in the form of non-finite constructions, reinforcing a compressed grammatical style. The preference for non-finite complements and modifiers (e.g., "*Small ship cruising done perfectly.*" instead of "*Small ship cruising that is done perfectly.*") reflects a broader tendency in advertising language to reduce explicit finiteness and auxiliary marking in favor of brevity and syntactic economy (Leech, 1966). When finite clauses do appear, they often incorporate personal pronouns such as *you* and *we*, serving an interpersonal function by establishing direct engagement and rapport between advertiser and audience (Fuentes-Olivera et al., 2001).

Taken together, the strong preference for dependent phrases, especially attributive adjectives as noun premodifiers, and non-finite clauses reflects a systematically compressed and implicit grammatical style. Rather than treating clausal and phrasal patterns as isolated structures, this study reconceptualizes Huadhom and Trakulkasemsuk's (2017) descriptive findings by showing that these features cluster into a highly compressed advertising register, in which grammatical economy is not incidental but strategically organized.

This tendency supports Bruthiaux's (1996) observation that classified ads favor "integrated strategies" relying on heavy noun-phrase modification, adjectival chains, and prepositional phrases rather than elaborated clause

structures. It also aligns with Myers's (1994) view that advertising often employs ellipsis and incomplete sentences to keep the message concise and engaging, encouraging readers to supply the missing elements themselves, which can facilitate involvement and memorability. By compressing meaning into phrases and non-finite forms, slogans remain brief yet persuasive.

In summary, while many structural features identified in this study align with previous research on advertising and tourism slogans, the findings extend earlier work by showing that these features constitute a coherent grammatical style rather than isolated formal choices. The predominance of noun phrases, attributive premodification, and non-finite clauses, together with the preference for positive, non-coordinated clauses with basic word order, points to a systematically compressed and structurally conservative register. This register prioritizes grammatical economy and accessibility, enabling tourism slogans to convey persuasive meaning efficiently under severe space and attention constraints. By focusing on patterns of grammatical organization rather than individual structures, the study provides a register-based account of tourism slogan syntax and clarifies how grammatical form supports communicative efficiency in tourism advertising.

LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The implications of this study are threefold. At a theoretical level, the study contributes to grammatical complexity research by demonstrating that the framework proposed by Biber et al. (2021), originally developed for academic discourse, can be productively extended to highly compressed promotional genres. While existing studies have largely focused on identifying surface-level syntactic forms (e.g., phrase and clause types), the present findings show that these forms systematically cluster into broader patterns of grammatical complexity. In tourism slogans, grammatical complexity operates not through elaboration, but through systematic compression, revealing how dependent phrases and non-finite structures function as efficient meaning-making resources outside academic contexts. At a descriptive level, the study documents recurring structural and grammatical patterns in tourism slogans across multiple subcategories. At an applied level, these insights inform ESP pedagogy and professional practice by highlighting grammatical strategies that support memorability and persuasive effectiveness in tourism advertising. In particular, tourism marketers and copywriters may consider prioritizing noun-phrase-heavy constructions and simple, positive clause structures, which appear to support brevity, clarity, and memorability in promotional discourse.

The findings of this study should be interpreted in light of certain methodological limitations. The corpus was constructed through purposive sampling from a single database and analyzed using manual coding procedures. While this approach enabled detailed and theoretically informed grammatical analysis, it necessarily constrains statistical representativeness and scalability.

Future studies may extend this line of inquiry by employing larger and more diverse corpora, integrating automated corpus-analytic methods, and conducting cross-linguistic comparisons. In addition, examining tourism slogans as multimodal texts that combine linguistic and visual elements would further enhance understanding of how grammatical complexity operates within broader persuasive strategies.

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