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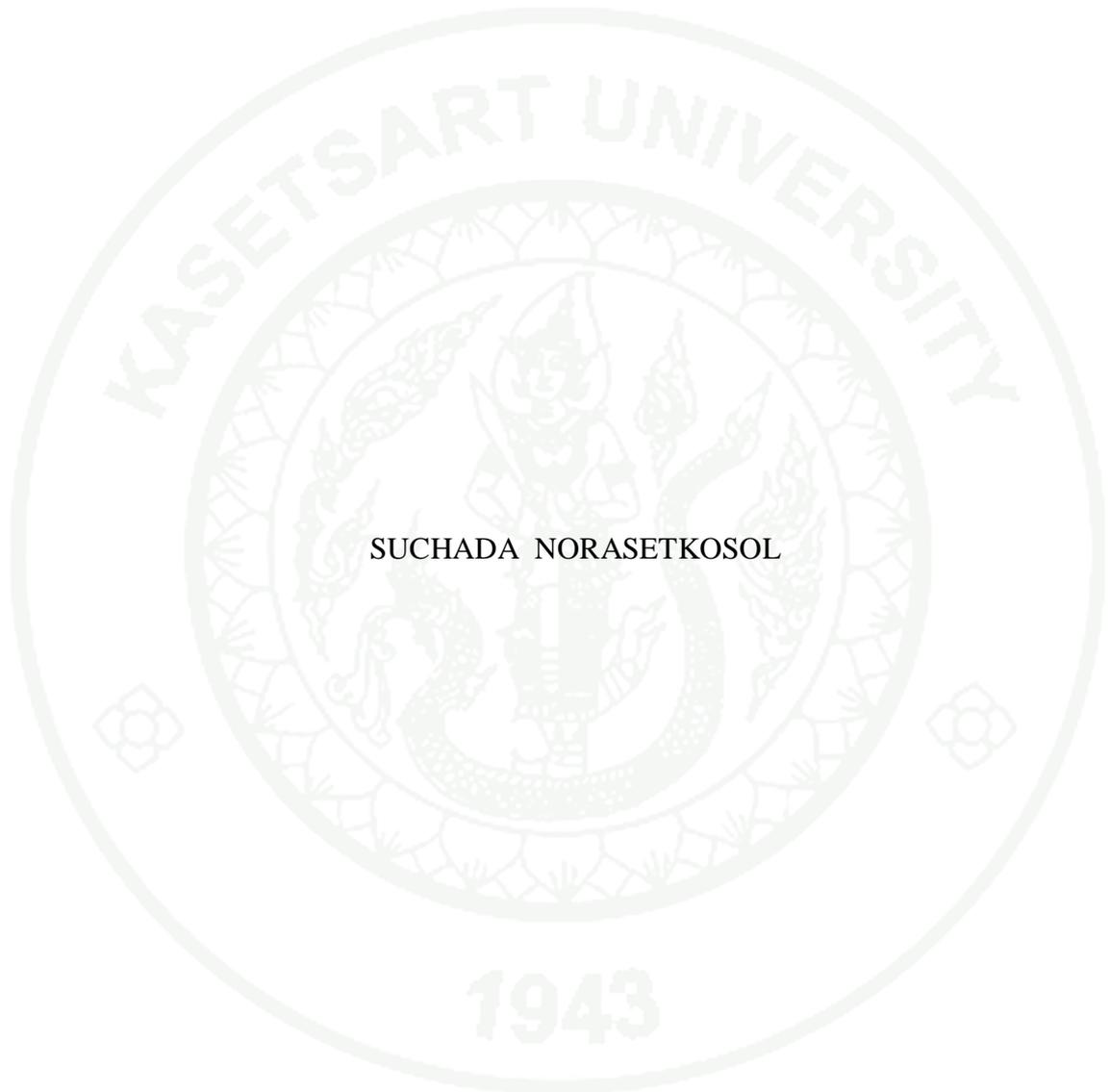
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THESIS

PERSUASIVE LINGUISTIC DEVICES IN TRAVEL MAGAZINES



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A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of  
the Requirements for the Degree of  
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The main objective of this study is to investigate figurative and non-figurative devices used as persuasion in travel magazines. Data were collected from four travel magazines, namely Lonely Planet, Condé Nast Traveller, National Geographic Traveler, and Travel + Leisure. The theories of persuasive writing involving figurative and non-figurative devices mainly suggested by Reinking, Hart, and Osten (1993); Zhang (2005); and Burns *et al.* (2006) were used to investigate the data. The sentences in the headlines, body stories, and captions from eight travel articles were examined to find the persuasive devices.

The findings showed that there were three types of figurative devices frequently used in the travel magazines: personifications, metaphors, and similes respectively. Comparison is the main strategy of these three figurative devices to describe places; personifications use human attributes whereas metaphors and similes use familiar things to compare with characteristics of places. These figurative devices are effective devices of persuasion because they give clear images of places and their comparisons do not lessen the credibility of the sources.

In the category of non-figurative devices, there were four types frequently used in the travel magazines: positive adjectives, second person pronouns, imperative sentences, and descriptions. Positive adjectives and descriptions use the strategy of presenting appealing images of places in terms of the five senses. Second person pronouns and imperative sentences use the strategy of addressing the readers directly. These four non-figurative devices are effective means of persuasion because they create motivation for travel.

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Student's signature

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Thesis Advisor's signature

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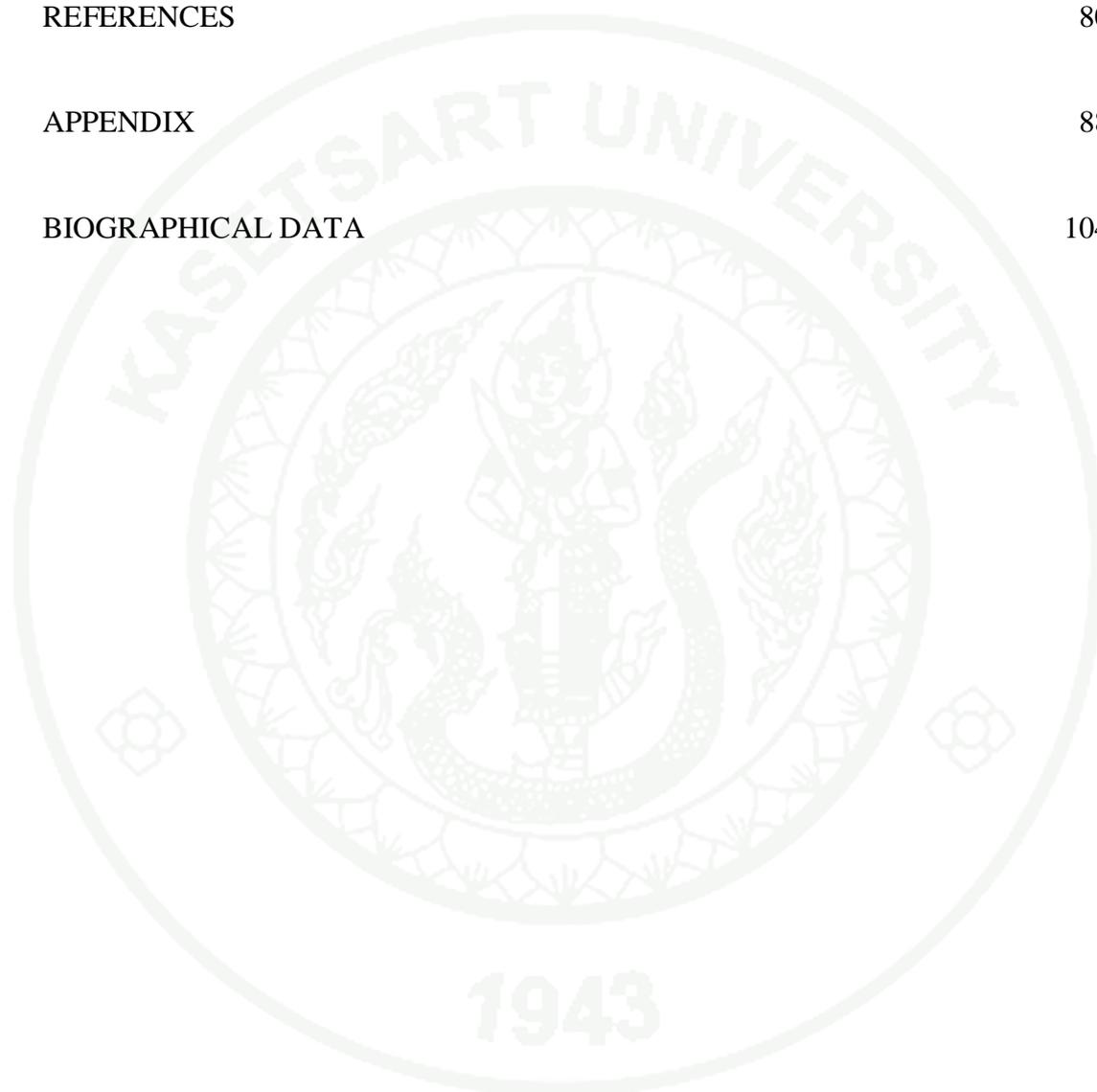
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# CHAPTER I

## INTRODUCTION

### Statement of the Problem

According to World Travel and Tourism Council (2010), tourism is one of the world's largest industries. The travel and tourism economy has an estimated value of US\$5,834.5 billion which is 9.3 percent of global GDP. This is forecast to increase to 9.7 percent (US\$11,270 billion) by 2020. There were more than 235 million job employment opportunities in this industry in 2010 and by 2020 employment is expected to grow to over 303 million. In this industry, investment stood at about US\$1,255.5 billion in 2010 and will be US\$2,722.3 billion by 2020.

There are three main purposes for traveling: leisure tourism, business tourism, and visiting friends and relatives (Rowe, Smith, and Borein, 2002). Rowe *et al.* pointed out that leisure tourism includes trips for holidays, health and fitness, sport, education, culture and religion, and for social and spiritual reasons. Business tourism refers to business meetings, exhibitions and trade fairs, conferences and conventions, and incentive travel (prizes for accomplishment in business). Finally, visiting friends and relatives comprises visiting elderly relatives, social visits to friends and relatives, and wedding celebrations.

Information searching is a significant process of travel since the products of tourism are intangible and tourists must use secondary sources to consider new and unfamiliar destinations or services (Wong and Lui, 2010). Trip decisions mainly rely on the amount and credibility of the obtained information (Wong and Lui). Grønflaten (2009) analyzed previous research studies and summarized that the major travel information sources include families, friends and relatives, travel agents, the Internet, and guidebooks.

Of these sources, the Internet and guidebooks are categorized as written travel information sources. According to McGregor (2000), textual illustrations of places have an effect on the perception of destinations. In using the Internet, tourists visit travel blogs, reviews of products, and virtual communities to obtain word of mouth information from other travelers (Schmallegger and Carson, 2008). Schmallegger and Carson pointed out that travelers use a Google search instead of identifying specific websites on their search destination information. In terms of using guidebooks, travelers use guidebooks to consider the value of places after hearing about the places (McGregor, 2000). Lew (1991) stated that most guidebooks contain information about hotels, shopping centers, restaurants, and transportation services.

While the Internet and guidebooks are regarded as the main planning tools, travel magazines, another written information source, are the main inspiration to encourage people to travel (Destination Australia Market Alliance and Tourism Queensland, 2006; Insignia Marketing Research Company, 2008; Grønflaten, 2009). The travel stories in magazines give inspiration for travel and ideas (Destination Australia Market Alliance and Tourism Queensland, 2006; Insignia Marketing Research Company, 2008). The source of inspiration is important because according to Cole (2009), inspiration is the first step of the seven-step travel process, which includes inspiration, research (searching for information), planning, validating (checking the options with friends or experts), booking, travel, and sharing (sharing travel experiences). Therefore, if no inspiration occurs, travel will not happen. Moreover, the benefit of travel magazines is to give suggestions about outstanding and interesting places (Sutaphawa, 2010).

Grønflaten (2009) clarified the difference between channels and sources of travel information in his study. He noted that the Internet is classified as an online channel which has many sources such as other travelers and friends or families while guidebooks and travel magazines are part of a print channel which has journalists as a source. The difference between guidebooks and travel magazines is that tourists do not only use guidebooks before leaving for destinations but also during the trips while travel magazines are used as pre-trip information which inspires them to travel

(Insignia Marketing Research Company, 2008; Nishimura, Waryszak, and King, 2006 cited in Grønflaten, 2009).

Kim and Fesenmaier (2008) suggested that inspiration is one factor to measure the persuasiveness of sources. In terms of tourism, inspiration means persuading prospective tourists to go to the destinations by building positive images of destinations (Kim and Fesenmaier). According to Guth (1975), persuasive writing helps stimulate the readers' emotions and influence them to take action. Thus, the features of language in tourism are mainly written in a persuasive style. Therefore, travel magazines use mainly persuasive writing. In addition, an ideal technique to learn about persuasive writing is studying the language used in travel magazines (Gillam, 2000).

There are some previous studies of tourism language in terms of persuasion. Most of these studies focused on the language used on the Internet, and in brochures and guidebooks. The findings of these studies showed that figures of speech are one of the main tools to create interest in products in tourism language and play an important role in promoting tourism (Djafarova and Andersen, 2008; Laing and Crouch, 2009; George, 2010). However, there are some limitations of the previous studies. First, in terms of figurative language, the previous studies focused only on metaphors and figures of speech based on sounds such as puns, alliteration, and rhymes. Second, as for non-figurative language, the previous studies tended to focus only on uses of adjectives, imperatives, descriptions, conditional *if* expressions, and questions as persuasive tools (Ip, 2008; Mahadi and Al-Bahrani, 2011). Moreover, there are a few studies which analyzed persuasive language used in travel magazines, and these studies emphasized sociolinguistics which explored the influence of social or environmental aspects on presenting destinations (Nygren, 2006; Santos and Rozier-Rich, 2009; Todd, 2010). Given such limitations, the present study would like to extend these previous studies by investigating figures of speech including not only the types of figurative devices found from prior studies but also other types such as personification, simile, and hyperbole. Moreover, the present study aims to investigate

non-figurative devices including both linguistic devices found from previous studies and other persuasive devices in travel magazines.

Due to the limitations of the previous studies, the purpose of the present study is to investigate persuasive linguistic devices used in travel magazines which provide information mainly for leisure tourism. The study investigates the use of figurative language in various kinds of figures of speech such as metaphor, simile, and personification. It also investigates the use of non-figurative language with an emphasis on various grammatical devices used to persuade readers such as modal verbs, positive adjectives, and imperative sentences. Data are taken from four travel magazines, namely Lonely Planet, Condé Nast Traveller, National Geographic Traveler, and Travel + Leisure. Content analysis is the primary technique to investigate these linguistic devices appearing in the travel magazines. It is hoped that the findings of this study will bring about greater comprehension of the figurative language and non-figurative language used to encourage readers to travel. Moreover, the findings could be a guideline for whoever wants to write travel stories to persuade others.

### **Objectives**

1. To investigate figurative devices used as persuasion in travel magazines
2. To investigate non-figurative devices used as persuasion in travel magazines

### **Research Questions**

1. What figurative devices are frequently used as persuasion in travel magazines?
2. What non-figurative devices are frequently used as persuasion in travel magazines?

## Scope of Study

The purpose of the study is to investigate persuasive linguistic devices in travel magazines. The study investigates figurative and non-figurative devices used in this source. Data are collected from the travel articles in travel magazines. Submissions from the readers are not selected since the researcher wants to investigate the language used by experts in travel writing. The travel magazines used as samples in this study include Lonely Planet, Condé Nast Traveller, National Geographic Traveler, and Travel + Leisure. The December issue is collected from each brand. Two articles are chosen from each magazine so the total samples are eight articles.

## Research Contribution

The present study should bring about greater comprehension of figurative language and non-figurative language used to describe tourist destinations and persuade the readers to visit. The findings would be a guideline for whoever is interested in writing about their travel experiences through any kinds of travel information sources. Amateur writers can apply these findings to express their feelings and their travel experiences to persuade other travelers to take trips. Moreover, they can use this guideline to promote their towns as tourist attractions through any kinds of sources by using these linguistic devices to create positive images of the places which arouse favorable feelings in readers toward the destinations and influence them to take trips.

## Definitions of Terms

The definitions employed in the present study are presented as follows:

**Figurative devices** refer to figures of speech having non-literal meanings and expressing sensory images. In this study, they refer to figures of speech used as persuasive devices, such as simile, metaphor, and hyperbole.

**Non-figurative devices** refer to linguistic features having literal meanings and expressing facts, opinions, or suggestions to make readers interested in particular topics. In this study, they refer to linguistic features used as persuasive devices, such as second person pronouns, testimonials, and bandwagon.

**Travel magazines** refer to magazines providing information about travel. In this study, they include Lonely Planet, Condé Nast Traveller, National Geographic Traveler, and Travel + Leisure.

**Travel articles** refer to articles giving information about places to persuade readers to visit. In this study, they refer to articles about places and tourist activities from the four travel magazines.

## CHAPTER II

### LITERATURE REVIEW

The objective of the study is to investigate persuasive linguistic devices in travel magazines. Therefore the literature review deals with four areas which include persuasive writing, figurative devices, non-figurative devices, and related studies.

#### Persuasive Writing

Persuasive writing is writing that convinces the readers to think, feel, or perform in a particular way (Douglas *et al.*, 2001). In persuasive writing, writers put emotional appeals in facts (Dustman, 2008). Persuasive writing appears in various sources such as advertisements, essays, editorials, magazine articles, and reviews (Sundem and Piekiewicz, 2006).

According to Sundem and Piekiewicz (2006), persuasive writing can be categorized into three types namely solving a problem, stating an opinion, and proving a theory.

1. Solving a problem is writing expressing the way to solve the problem by claiming the solution obviously. This kind of writing is found in letters, advertisements, and position papers.

2. Stating an opinion is writing showing an opinion and convincing the readers to think or have feelings the same as the writer and this type of persuasion can be found in many sources such as, advertisements, magazine articles, editorials, books or movie reviews, and pamphlets.

3. Proving a theory is writing using research and facts to prove the theory and this type includes scientific journal articles, lab reports, and research-based advertisements.

From the three types of persuasive writing above, different sources may have different forms of writing even in the same type. The similarity of these three types of persuasive writing is that the main aim is to convince the readers to believe and take action following the writer.

These three types of persuasive writing have different patterns and the linguistic tools used in these three types are various. Based on previous literature, common linguistic devices of persuasive writing include second person pronouns, testimonials, bandwagon appeals, repetition, rhetorical questions, modal verbs, imperative sentences, conditional sentences, adjectives, descriptions, intensifiers, and figures of speech (Voss and Keene, 1992; Buss and Karnowski, 2002; Jordan, 2002; Struder, Urbanek, and Holmes, 2004; Burns *et al.*, 2006; Wolfe, 2007; Pilbeam, Kerr, and Naudé, 2008; Zemach and Stafford-Yilmaz, 2008; Merrick, 2009; Taleb and Mardiha, 2010; Elith, n.d.; Straker, n.d). Therefore, these linguistic devices are mainly divided into two categories: figurative devices and non-figurative devices.

### **Figurative Devices**

According to Reinking, Hart, and Osten (1993), figurative language is language using concrete words which create images of senses. Figures of speech are words having non-literal meanings and expressing sensory images to show what something looks like, tastes like, sounds like, smells like, and feels like.

Urbanek, Culpepper, and Struder (2007) noted that figures of speech are used to emphasize ideas and emotions through word pictures to make readers comprehend a point. In interpretation of figurative language, the meaning does not rely on the literal meaning since there is an intended meaning (Elder, 2008). When using figures of speech, abstract ideas are conveyed to readers by using concrete words to make readers see clear pictures in their minds.

There are many types of figures of speech having different purposes of use. However, Reinking *et al.* (1993) pointed out that the main figurative devices include

comparison, overstatement, understatement, and stressing the personal dimension. Most of these figures of speech have subtypes as presented in Table 1.

**Table 1** Types and subtypes of figures of speech

Figures of Speech	Subtypes
comparison	simile and metaphor
overstatement	hyperbole
understatement	meiosis, litotes, and euphemism
stressing the personal dimension	personification and apostrophe

## 1. Comparison

Comparison refers to the comparison between things that seem different but they are alike in some ways (Elder, 2008). It is subdivided into simile and metaphor.

### 1.1 Similes

A **simile** is an explicit comparison between two unlike things with the use of a comparative word such as *like* or *as* (Reinking *et al.*, 1993). The four basic criteria of similes are that they use comparative words such as *like*; they compare two things; two things must be considerably dissimilar; and two things must be alike in at least one feature (Zhang, 2005). Based on these four criteria, the comparison of two similar things is not a simile even the sentence uses a comparative word (Anaxos, 2005).

For example, ‘Your son is as tall as mine’ is not a simile since it compares two humans which are not different things. On the other hand, the sentences ‘The bag was as light as a feather’ (Burns *et al.*, 2006: 17) and ‘Nick’s unshaved chin feels like sandpaper’ (Voss and Keene, 1992: 345) are similes because they compare different things. In these similes, the bag and a feather or Nick’s unshaved chin and sandpaper

are compared to show some similar features of these different things. The first simile conveys that the bag is very light like the weight of a feather and the second one conveys that Nick's unshaved chin is rough like sandpaper.

Similes can be written in various forms based on the comparative words used (Zhang, 2005). Zhang pointed out that there are 13 forms of similes depending on the comparative words used as illustrated in Table 2.

**Table 2** Forms of similes

Comparative Words	Examples
1. like	'Marriage is <u>like</u> a beleaguered fortress: those who are without want to get in, and those within want to get out. (P.M. Quitard)'
2. as	'Beauty is <u>as</u> summer fruits which are easy to corrupt and can not last. (Bacon)'
3. as...as...	'But when the motor of a tractor stops, it is <u>as</u> dead <u>as</u> the ore it came from. (Steinbeck)'
4. ...as...	'Today you see them bouncing, buxom, red <u>as</u> cherries. (C. Bronte)'
5. as..., so...	' <u>As</u> cold water to a thirsty soul, <u>so</u> is good news from a far country.'
6. may (might) as well...as	'You <u>might as well</u> expect the sun to rise in the west <u>as</u> hope to move me.'
7. as if (as though)	'He was a beautiful horse that looked <u>as though</u> he had come out of a painting by Velasquez. (Ernest Hemingway)'
8. A is to B What C is to D/ what C is to D, A is to B	'The pen <u>is to</u> a writer <u>what</u> the gun <u>is to</u> a fighter/ <u>what</u> the gun <u>is to</u> a fighter, the pen <u>is to</u> a writer.'
9. more...than...	'A fool can no <u>more</u> see his own folly <u>than</u> he can see his ears.'

**Table 2** (Continued)

Comparative Words	Examples
10. remind of	‘His nose was particularly white and his large nostrils, correspondingly dark, <u>reminded</u> me <u>of</u> an oboe when they dilated.’
11. compare...to	‘I <u>compare</u> his genius <u>to</u> a lightning flash.’
12. resemble	‘His face <u>resembled</u> a silver moon.’
13. phrasal verb: be similar to/ consider...as/ treat...as, etc.	‘I <u>consider</u> his eyes <u>as</u> a mysterious land.’

Source: Zhang (2005: 160-161)

## 1.2 Metaphors

A **metaphor** is a comparison between two different things by not using a comparative word such as *like* or *as* and a linking verb is used in some metaphors (Reinking *et al.*, 1993). ‘The essence of metaphor is understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another’ (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980: 5).

Thus, both similes and metaphors involve the use of another entity to represent a thing or an idea by comparison. The difference between similes and metaphors is that similes use a comparative word while metaphors do not.

Some examples of metaphors are in the sentences ‘My mother is an angel’ and ‘The world is a stage’ (Zhang, 2005: 168). In the first example, my mother is compared with an angel and this metaphor can have two meanings; my mother is a good person like an angel or she is beautiful like an angel. In the second example, the world is compared with a stage, which means the world where we live is like a stage where we perform or act.

Zhang (2005) divided metaphors into two types based on their structures and five types based on word categories as presented in Table 3.

**Table 3** Types of metaphors based on their structures and word categories

Structures	Word Categories
1. visible metaphors	1. noun metaphors
2. invisible metaphors	2. verb metaphors
2.1 a presentation of a primary term without a secondary term	3. adjectival metaphors 4. adverbial metaphors
2.2 a presentation of a secondary term without a primary term	5. proverb metaphors

The two types of metaphors based on their structures: visible metaphors and invisible metaphors (Table 3) are explained as follows.

**1. Visible metaphors** have the form ‘A is B’. Visible metaphors can be called direct metaphors which state the comparison directly as in the sentences, ‘Clean water is gold in this area’ and ‘Hugs are medicine’. In the first sentence, clean water is compared with gold. It means clean water is rare, so its value is high in the area. In the second sentence, hugs are compared with medicine, meaning hugs can ease pain like medicine.

**2. Invisible metaphors** or **implied metaphors** are comparing two different things indirectly as in ‘Love is to be watered and to be fertilized’. A tree, which is not stated in the sentence, is compared with love. The readers can understand the comparison by looking at the words *watered* and *fertilized* as clues. Invisible metaphors can be further divided into two kinds as illustrated below.

2.1 There is a presentation of a primary term (tenor) without a presentation of a secondary term (vehicle), but the other words hint at the comparison. For instance, in the metaphor ‘Some books are to be tasted, others to be swallowed, and some few to be chewed and digested’ (Francis Bacon cited in Zhang, 2005: 164),

the words *tasted*, *swallowed*, *chewed*, and *digested* imply that the secondary term is food which is compared with the primary term *books*.

2.2 For the other type of invisible metaphors, the sentence presents a secondary term without a primary term and the secondary term implies the primary term. An example of this type is ‘Cotton wool floats in the sky and showers us with rain’. The secondary term *cotton wool* is compared with the primary term *cloud*. The verb phrases *floats in the sky* and *showers us with rain* change as above provide clues about the primary term.

The five types of metaphors based on word categories: noun metaphors, verb metaphors, adjectival metaphors, adverbial metaphors, and proverb metaphors (Table 3) are explained as follows.

**1. Noun metaphors** refer to using nouns in comparison. Nouns are used in both the primary term and the secondary term. An example of a noun metaphor is ‘Age is my alarm clock’ (Hemingway cited in Zhang, 2005: 171). The noun *age* which is the primary term is compared with the noun *alarm clock* which is the secondary term.

**2. Verb metaphors** refer to using verbs in comparison, such as ‘My heart galloped when I saw him’. The verb *gallop* suggests a comparison between a heart and a horse because the word *gallop* is the movement of a horse.

**3. Adjectival metaphors** refer to using adjectives in comparison. The sentence ‘The policeman’s steaming temper forces the suspect to confess to stealing a car’ is an example of an adjectival metaphor. The temper is compared with boiling water by using the adjective *steaming* which is a characteristic of boiling water.

**4. Adverbial metaphors** refer to using adverbs in comparison. An example of an adverbial metaphor is ‘She cuttingly remarked on my appearance,

which was hurtful'. The adverb *cuttingly* implies that the comment is compared with a knife.

**5. Proverb metaphors** refer to using proverbs in comparison. 'Still waters run deep' (Zhang, 2005: 172) is an example of a proverb metaphor using a proverb as a secondary term.

Figurative devices of comparison such as similes and metaphors are used to explain unfamiliar senses in terms of familiar things (Voss and Keene, 1992). Comparison with familiar things will be used when there are no proper words to create word pictures of objects, persons, scenes, events, or situations in description (Reinking *et al.*, 1993).

In conclusion, the similarity between similes and metaphors is in terms presenting things or ideas by comparing with other things. The difference between similes and metaphors can be seen in the use of comparative words as similes use comparative words while metaphors do not. Similes are generally easier to understand than metaphors since there are comparative words guiding the comparison.

## 2. Overstatements

Overstatement refers to using an exaggerated expression to emphasize something (Reinking *et al.*, 1993). **Hyperbole** is the figurative device of overstatement. Hyperbole is an exaggerated statement which highlights the importance of something (Jarvie, 1993).

An example of hyperbole is in the sentence 'He embraced her a thousand times' (Jarvie, 1993: 148). From this example, he did not actually embrace her a thousand times but the phrase *a thousand times* emphasizes that he embraced her many times. Another example of hyperbole is 'I am so hungry that I could eat a horse'. The reality is she or he cannot eat a horse and the phrase *eat a horse* stresses how extremely hungry she or he is.

According to Webb (1993), hyperboles do not express the truth but they are used to magnify the truth of things in the form of emphasis. With this property of hyperboles, they are employed to promote products in marketing (Jarvie, 1993). However, Reinking *et al.* (1993) pointed out that the overuse of hyperbole leads to the risk of losing credibility.

To summarize, the statements in hyperboles that seem untrue are used to stress the importance of things or the level of something. The overstatement is used where the writer wants to emphasize something by exceeding the actual level of it.

### 3. Understatements

In contrast to overstatement, understatement refers to stressing a point of something by using a humble expression (Reinking *et al.* 1993). The figures of speech of understatement consist of meiosis, litotes, and euphemism (Bradshaw, 2002).

#### 3.1 Meiosis

**Meiosis** refers to emphasizing the importance of things by lessening the actual level of things in the point which is highlighted (Valentine, 2005). Jarvie (1993) stated that meiosis is an understatement which is used to decrease the size or importance of something and a word like *rather* is sometimes used.

For example, Dan likes the girl next door very much and he says ‘She’s rather nice’ (Jarvie, 1993: 151) or when the temperature outside is 5 degrees on the Celsius scale, you say ‘It is a little cold outside’. Another example of meiosis is that when you have a lot of things to do in the morning; sending your child to school, having an appointment with the dentist, going to the bank or having the meeting, you say ‘It is rather busy this morning’ instead of saying ‘It is hectic this morning’.

### 3.2 Litotes

**Litotes** refers to an understatement expressing an affirmative statement by using a negative or opposite (Gilman, 1994). The form ‘not un-’ is often found in litotes (Gilman).

For example, the sentence ‘This sofa is not uncomfortable’ means this sofa is comfortable or the sentence ‘This problem is not unimportant to our business’ means it is an important problem to our business. Other forms of litotes are *not* and *no*, for example ‘She is not stupid’ (Pilbeam *et al.*, 2008: 220) meaning she is clever and ‘This is no easy task’ (Jarvie, 1993: 151) meaning this is a difficult task.

### 3.3 Euphemism

**Euphemism** refers to the use of an indirect expression substituting the sensitive saying, offensive words, and unpleasant topics for more acceptable ones (Hughes, 2006; Avraham, 2008). Jarvie (1993) mentioned that avoiding using explicit words help it be less offensive.

For example, speakers or writers use ‘passed away’ for ‘died’, ‘a third world country’ for ‘a poor country’, ‘correctional facility’ for ‘prison’, and ‘She has a full figure’ for ‘She is fat’ (Jarvie, 1993: 147; Urbanek, Culpepper and Struder, 2007: 40).

To conclude, use of a humble expression is a property of meiosis, litotes, and euphemism. However, the difference between these three subtypes of understatement is that meiosis uses the same word or words having a similar meaning with a word which lessens the level of things. While litotes uses a word having the opposite meaning with a negative word *not* or *no*, euphemism uses a different word which has a more pleasant meaning.

#### 4. Stressing the Personal Dimension

Stressing the personal dimension refers to figures of speech treating nonhuman things as human and it includes personification and apostrophe (Bradshaw, 2002).

##### 4.1 Personifications

**Personification** refers to giving human attributes to the nonhuman things such as nonliving things, animals, and abstract ideas (Hall, 2001). An example is in the sentence ‘Sunflowers keep looking at the sun all the time’. In this example, sunflowers have an action like a human. Although sunflowers are living things, they are not humankind and looking is not an action of flowers. The sentence ‘The kettle is singing joyfully’ (Zhang, 2005: 185) is another example of personification as the verb *singing* shows that the nonliving kettle acts like a human.

Tucker (2001) pointed out that there are seven ways to create personifications as illustrated in Table 4.

**Table 4** Seven ways of creating personifications

Ways	Examples
1. Using human actions explains things.	‘The basketball <u>smiles</u> .’ ‘Time is <u>singing</u> .’
2. Using parts of the human body describes things.	‘The <u>hands</u> of the sun’ ‘The stapler’s <u>teeth</u> ’
3. Human adjectives modify things.	‘ <u>Honest</u> cars’ ‘A <u>courageous</u> computer’
4. Using clothes and accessories describes things.	‘The football wears a <u>leather coat</u> .’ ‘I hold the <u>gloves</u> of sound.’

**Table 4** (Continued)

Ways	Examples
5. The relationship of a human is given to things.	‘Pink’s <u>parents</u> are red and white.’ ‘Love’s <u>best friend</u> is kindness.’
6. Human personalities including hobbies, favorite foods, homes and work are given to things.	‘The drum <u>vacations</u> by the sea.’ ‘Stars <u>live in sky</u> apartments.’
7. Personal pronouns including he, she, his and her are referring to things.	‘The ocean waved <u>her</u> arms.’ ‘The potato winked <u>his</u> eyes.’

Source: Tucker (2001: 24-25)

#### 4.2 Apostrophe

**Apostrophe** refers to a statement to a nonhuman thing or nonexistent person which is addressed as if it were a person who could understand what the speaker says and the personal pronoun *you* and determiner *your* are usually used (Zhang, 2005). An apostrophe is employed when writers or speakers communicate to nonhuman things or abstract ideas and the exclamation *O* is often used (Bradshaw, 2002).

In the sentences, ‘Where, O death, is your victory? Where, O death, is your sting’ (Bradshaw, 2002: 9), death which is the abstract idea is talked with as the person. The sentences ‘I give thanks to the moon. Your light always gives me hope in the darkness’ are another example of apostrophe. The communicator thanks the moon as if it were a human because the determiner *your* is used to make the nonhuman thing a person.

In addition, apostrophe is often combined with personification (Zhang 2005). In the sentences ‘Hello loneliness, my old friend. You are always with me’, the phrase *my old friend* is a personification since the relationship of the human is given

to the abstract idea; the personal pronoun *you* indicates that loneliness is a person in an apostrophe.

In summary, although both personification and apostrophe are used to make a nonhuman thing a person, the processes are different between these two figures of speech. The difference between personification and apostrophe is that nonhuman things take human actions or have human qualities in personification while nonhuman things are regarded as people often using the second personal pronoun *you*, the second possessive pronoun *your*, or the exclamation *O* in apostrophe.

### **Non-Figurative Devices**

Non-figurative devices refer to linguistic features having literal meanings and expressing facts, opinions, or suggestions to make readers interested in particular topics. There are many non-figurative features used as persuasive devices, such as second person pronouns, testimonials, and bandwagon. The details of these devices are explained below.

#### **1. Second Person Pronouns**

The second person pronoun (*you*) refers to the pronoun used by a speaker in referring to a person whom a speaker talks to (Summers and Adrian-Vallance, 2007). The forms of possessive and reflexive pronoun *you* are *your* (*yours*) and *yourself* (*yourselves*) respectively. The second person pronoun is used to make the readers feel involved in the topic that is communicated and also make the message sound friendly (Burns *et al.*, 2006). The writer uses the second person pronoun to build a relationship with the readers (Burns *et al.*).

For instance, in the sentence, ‘...but it’s only possible with help from people like you’ (Jordan, 2002: 112), the pronoun *you* is used to promote the campaign by making the readers feel that they should support the campaign to make it succeed. In another example, ‘This product is made from natural ingredients, since we are

concerned about your health’, the word *your*, the possessive form of *you*, creates a good relationship between the writer and readers because it makes the readers feel that they are being taken care of.

## 2. Testimonials

Testimonials consist of using famous people such as superstars and celebrities to promote the products by using their quotes (Struder *et al.*, 2004). An example of a testimonial can be seen in the quote of movie stars ‘We drink Bobby’s Dairy milk daily!’ (Wolfe, 2007: 153). When the readers know their admired stars use this product, they may try or use the same product like those movie stars. In another example in the advertisement, a supermodel said ‘If you want strong, silky hair like mine, buy Sassy Shampoo today!’ (Wolfe, 2007: 151). This advertisement tries to convince people who want their hair to appear the same as the supermodel to use this product.

However, a testimonial is not only used to promote products in advertisements, but it is also used to campaign about social or environmental activities. For example, a campaign to persuade people to drink milk in the United States used Miley Cyrus, a famous singer, to say:

Actress by day. Rocker by night. I’ve got to keep fit to keep up. So I drink milk. Some studies suggest that teens who choose milk instead of sugary drinks tend to be leaner and the protein helps build muscle. It’s the best of both worlds.

This campaign uses a famous person as an example of doing something good to convince the public to cooperate with the campaign.

### 3. Bandwagon

Bandwagon refers to using the idea of ‘everybody is doing it’ to persuade the readers to do something by using pronouns or noun phrases showing the majority such as *everyone*, *most students*, *nine out of ten people*, and *thousands of women* (McCarthy, 1998; Wolfe, 2007: 152; Riccardi and Perillo, 2009). This technique makes the readers think that the product or what the writer recommends is good because many people use it or do it.

For example, the sentence in an advertisement ‘X Drink; everyone loves it’ contains a message which makes the readers suppose that X Drink is good for health or has a good taste since everyone loves it and they want to try it. The sentence ‘The Customer Service Course is essential training which most five-star hotel employees have completed’ is another example of bandwagon used to recommend skill development for their staff. When the readers realize that the Customer Service Course is useful for hospitality skills because most five-star hotels hold this type of training, they may start arranging this course in their hotels. In the last example found in a Colgate advertisement, the sentence ‘9 out of 10 dentists who tried Colgate® Sensitive Pro-Relief™ would recommend it for sensitive teeth’ shows the majority of dentists recommend Colgate and indicates that Colgate is a good choice.

### 4. Repetition

Repetition refers to the use of the same word or phrase many times to emphasize something (Pilbeam *et al.*, 2008). Repetition is used to make the readers remember the main idea and have deep feelings (Taleb and Mardiha, 2010; Elith, n.d.).

The first example is in the airline advertisement, ‘We want to improve our service to you, our valued customers. You, our loyal customers, are important to us. We will aim to satisfy the needs of you, our customers’ (Pilbeam *et al.*, 2008: 170). The repetition of the word *customers* shows that the airline puts the customers at the

center of its service. Another example is in an advertisement about the environment, ‘Over consumption causes pollution. Inappropriate disposal of the waste from factories and households leads to pollution. People affected by pollution have a low quality of life’. The word *pollution* is often used in the message since the writer wants to stress the environmental problem in terms of pollution.

## 5. Rhetorical Questions

Rhetorical questions refer to questions which do not want answers (Jordan, 2002). Rhetorical questions encourage the readers to think about what is being asked and also create a feeling of involvement for the readers (Burns *et al.*, 2006). According to Jordan, although this kind of question does not require an answer, the communicator already has the intended answer. Rhetorical questions are used to highlight the point and have a stronger effect than direct statements.

An example is in the message ‘Thousands of cars are stolen every year. Is this kind of behaviour acceptable in our society?’ (Burns *et al.*, 2006: 16). This question does not require the answer yes or no but it wants the readers to be concerned about stealing cars. The message ‘Many people have died from serious head injuries. Do you wear a helmet when you ride?’ is another example to promote helmet use. The question encourages the readers to take action.

## 6. Modal Verbs

Modal verbs refer to verbs assisting the main verbs to convey the moods of the subjects and express persuasion, possibility, ability, and willingness (Cheng Lim, 2009). The main modal verbs that are usually found include *can*, *could*, *may*, *might*, *shall*, *should*, *will*, *would*, and *must* (Cheng Lim). Zemach and Stafford-Yilmaz (2008) stated that a modal verb is used when the writer wants to give advice and stress the importance of doing something in a persuasive way. In addition, modal verbs of possibility can be used in persuasion since they encourage the readers to think about something which can be done and is worth doing (Straker, n.d.).

For example, ‘You can have a special breakfast on the beach here’ contains a message offering the option of service to persuade the readers to try it by using a modal verb *can* which shows the possibility. Another example of a modal verb is found in the sentence, ‘According to the statistics for injuries and deaths of children from playing at playgrounds, schools should always inspect the equipment and maintain it in a good condition’, in which the message uses statistics to give information to make the readers consider it as an important issue and states the solution to persuade the readers to take action by using the modal verb *should*.

## 7. Imperative Sentences

Imperative sentences refer to sentences beginning with verbs and omitting the understood subject *you* (Conlin, Herman, and Martin, 1978). Imperative sentences are sentences which persuade readers to perform the action quickly (Elith, n.d.). In addition, Taleb and Mardiha (2010) pointed out that an imperative sentence is the straightest way used to encourage prospective customers to buy products in advertising.

An example of using an imperative form can be seen in the sentence ‘Have your honeymoon dinner at our wonderful restaurant’. The word *have* beginning the sentence is a verb used to urge the readers to take action. Another example is the sentence ‘Start now before it is too late to heal the world’. The imperative form urges the readers to protect the world now by using the methods that are recommended earlier in the message.

## 8. Conditional Sentences

Conditional sentences refer to sentences consisting of a main clause and a subordinate clause which begins with *if* (Cowan, 2008). Conditional sentences are used when the writer wants to state the action relating to the condition and they are often used to give advice or persuade the readers (Burns *et al.*, 2006).

According to Cowan (2008), there are many types of conditional sentences; however, conditional sentences conveying suggestion use simple present tense in the *if*-clause. Simple present tense shows the possible future event. The recommendation is communicated by using an imperative form or a modal verb in the main clause as explained in Table 5.

**Table 5** Forms of conditional sentences

Subordinate Clauses	Main Clauses	Examples
simple present tense	imperative form	'If you come to Thailand, visit Wat Phra Kaew.'
simple present tense	modal verb	'If the weather is good, you should go for a walk.'

The first example in Table 5 uses an imperative form in the main clause to recommend or persuade the readers to visit Wat Phra Kaew when they have the situation mentioned in *if*-clause. The second example uses a modal verb *should* to suggest the readers to go out for a walk when the weather is the same as condition in *if*-clause.

## 9. Different Types of Adjectives

According to Buss and Karnowski (2002), there are three kinds of adjectives used in promoting products or ideas namely positive adjectives, comparative adjectives, and superlative adjectives as explained below.

**9.1 Positive adjectives** are used to express the positive characteristics of things or ideas such as *convenient*, *stunning*, and *practical*.

**9.2 Comparative adjectives** are used to compare the difference between two things, for example, in the sentences 'The new system is more user friendly than the old one' and 'This solution is more efficient than others'.

**9.3 Superlative adjectives** are used to compare at least three things and state that something is at the highest or the lowest degree, for instance, in the sentences ‘We offer the cheapest price’ and ‘Our hotel is the most popular in this town’.

## 10. Description

Description refers to writing which gives details about what someone or something is like (Summers and Adrian-Vallance, 2007). Description is one of tools of persuasive communication to express the sensation and create the visual appearance in mind (Voss and Keene, 1992). Description has many language forms to convey the imagination of sensory experiences such as sight, taste, sound, smell, and touch to the readers’ minds and may involve the use of adjectives and figures of speech, especially similes and metaphors (Voss and Keene). In terms of destinations, description is used to present clear pictures of places or scenes which evoke feeling toward the places (Vivian and Jackson, 1961).

An example of description can be found in the sentence ‘Relax in a king size bed with crisp linen, soft duvet, and lots of large downy pillows’ (Anonymous, n.d.). This example is found in the brochure of City North Hotel. The words *crisp*, *soft*, *large*, and *downy* are adjectives used to describe the aspects of the bed. The readers can see a picture of this bed in their mind. Another example is the sentence ‘Located in a beautiful and serene environment the Thai Sala feels like a being in a modern, romantic Garden of Eden for our times’ (Anonymous, 2011). The second example is in the brochure of Twin Palms Phuket Hotel. A simile is used in the description and the comparative word *like* is used to compare the environment of the hotel to a ‘Garden of Eden’.

## 11. Intensifiers

Intensifiers refer to a kind of adverb which strengthens the meanings of adjectives and other adverbs (Merrick, 2009). Examples of adverbial intensifiers include *very*, *really*, *absolutely*, *extremely*, *completely*, and *immensely*. Intensifiers are

used in persuasive writing since they make the messages clear (Merrick). According to Donnelly (1994), intensifiers are used to emphasize the writer's opinion in persuasive argument and advertising. However, the overuse of intensifiers can have a negative effect on persuasiveness (Long and Christensen, 2008).

For example, in the sentence 'The show is extremely exciting', the intensifier *extremely* highlights the adjective *exciting* by informing the high degree of excitement. Another example, in the sentence 'The machine worked really well', uses the adverbial intensifier *really* to emphasize the adverb of manner *well* which modifies the verb. This intensifier emphasizes the degree of success in the way the machine worked.

### **Related Studies**

There are a number of previous studies about tourism language. These studies are categorized into two groups: those dealing with figurative devices and those concerning non-figurative devices.

#### **Studies of Figurative Devices in Tourism Language**

Many studies in this group focused on metaphors, puns, alliteration and rhymes. The samples in these studies were usually collected from advertisements, guidebooks, the Internet, and travelers.

For example, Djafarova and Andersen (2007) studied the figurative devices used in British tourism advertisements published in travel brochures, magazines, and newspapers from the 1970s to 2005. This study focused on metaphors, puns, and alliteration. The slogans and headlines of four hundred print advertisements were selected in analysis. The findings showed that figures of speech were used to help the readers comprehend intangible products. Metaphors created positive images of products; however, metaphors were complex and might cause ambiguity in interpretation. Puns (words having the same sounds but different meanings such as the

words ‘Seafari’ and ‘safari’) were used in a humorous way and were a useful technique to draw attention to the products. Metaphors and puns could cause some misinterpretation of the tourism image and required effort from the readers to understand the meanings because of the ambiguous nature of metaphors and puns. Alliteration (the repetition of an initial consonant sound in neighboring words such as ‘Sun, sea, and sand’) was used to enhance the attractiveness and memorability of the products. The readers could understand alliteration easily.

Laing and Crouch (2009) studied the use of metaphors and imagery to describe the travel experiences of frontier travelers who journeyed in remote areas without any infrastructure where only a few people have ever been. The researchers interviewed thirty-seven frontier travelers and collected fifty texts from books and internet diaries which were written by frontier travelers. The findings showed that metaphors were used in many themes. For example, under the theme of desire and passion was a comparison between a frontier trip and a woman in terms of virginity and seduction. Another example, concerning the theme of dreams, mystery, and illusion was a comparison between frontier travelers’ experiences and dreams of other worlds. Laing and Crouch stated that these themes might be a helpful technique for marketing travel to remote areas or for other kinds of tourism.

George (2010) studied poetic devices used in tourism’s promotional literature. He focused on analyzing the poetry which was found in many kinds of travel information sources such as guidebooks and advertisements. He analyzed the linguistic devices used in the poetry which were used to convey favorable representations of the destinations. The findings showed that metaphors, alliteration, and rhymes (the repetition of a terminal sound of words such as the assonance *ee* in the slogan ‘Dundee City of Discovery’) were usually used in poetry. Metaphors used familiar terms such as well-known places in comparison with unfamiliar locations. Moreover, metaphors were used to avoid presenting real images of the destinations which were negative. Alliteration was used to get attention from the readers and helped recall of the products. Alliteration and rhymes were useful for marketing in making the audiences remember the qualities of the products.

### Studies of Non-Figurative Devices in Tourism Language

Many studies in this group concerned adjectives, positive adjectives, superlative adjectives, imperatives, description, conditional *if* expressions, infinitive structures, negative interrogative imperatives, and questions. The samples in these studies were often selected from print brochures and online brochures.

For example, Ip (2008) studied the language and images used in a travel brochure about a variety of local tours of Splendid Tours & Travel Limited, an associated agency of the Hong Kong Tourism Board. Ip explored how the words and images increased the persuasive power of the brochure. In terms of language, the findings showed that descriptive words (adjectives) were used to convey a positive image of Hong Kong and superlative adjectives were used to make exaggerated statements. Imperatives and negative imperatives together with exclamation marks functioned as encouragement for the readers to do something or not to do something. The usage of these linguistic features to present only the positive parts of the place maximized the persuasive power of the brochure which aimed to persuade people to buy tourism products.

Mahadi and Al-Bahrani (2011) studied stylistics (linguistic patterns) and semiotics (pictures) used in online brochures of travelling in Penang, a northern Island of Malaysia. Seven written texts about Penang were selected randomly through the web site: <http://www.penang-vacations.com/penang-tourist-attractions.html>. The findings in terms of linguistic devices showed that linguistic techniques used to persuade the readers to visit Penang included description about the place, a huge use of positive adjectives occurring in description, conditional *if* expressions as directive function, a large use of infinitive structures presenting the sense of adventure, negative interrogative imperatives as attempts to persuade tourists to decide, and questions which were used to draw attention.

## CHAPTER III

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The qualitative method was employed in the present study since it used content analysis to deal with the research objectives -- to investigate figurative devices used as persuasion in travel magazines and to investigate non-figurative devices used as persuasion in travel magazines. This chapter serves to discuss the research methodology. It is divided into three sections, which are (1) data collection, (2) data analysis, and (3) verification of the study.

#### Data Collection

The data for the study were taken from travel articles in travel magazines. In selecting travel magazines, the present study used the purposive sampling method because there were a lot of travel magazines on the market. To ensure the form of well-written English, travel magazines which are sold worldwide and published in native English speaking countries were the main criteria in choosing brand names. Four travel magazines were selected in the study. Lonely Planet and Condé Nast Traveller published in the United Kingdom represent the written form of British English. National Geographic Traveler and Travel + Leisure published in the United States represent the written form of American English.

The purposive sampling method was used in selecting an issue. The December issue was chosen because there are two main holiday celebrations of people around the world in this month. Christmas Day and New Year are important celebrations worldwide. Moreover, December is the beginning of high season for travel in many parts of the world such as Southeast Asia, South America, and South Africa (Cristina, 2011; Hamre, n.d.; Williams *et al.*, n.d.). Therefore, it was presumed that the contents of travel magazines in the December issue would intensively promote destinations, so the language used would be interesting to study.

Then, purposive sampling and simple random sampling methods were used in collecting travel articles. There were two criteria for the purposive sampling method. First, the topics of the articles had to deal with places and tourist activities. Other topics, such as insurance and flights were not included in the study. Second, the body stories of the articles needed to contain at least 300 words because the content of an article of this length would convey the vivid details of places, and there should presumably be several persuasive devices. After that, two travel articles which met these two criteria were selected randomly from each travel magazine.

Therefore, the total samples in the study are eight travel articles. The names of these articles are shown as follows:

- ‘The Perfect Trip Florida’ and ‘Winter Wonderland’ are from Lonely Planet.
- ‘A Trip to the Seaside’ and ‘Lesser Spotted Seychelles’ are from Condé Nast Traveller.
- ‘Best of the World’ and ‘Surprise: an Urban Road Trip’ are from National Geographic Traveler.
- ‘The Wild West’ and ‘Venice at Christmas’ are from Travel + Leisure.

### **Data Analysis**

In order to answer the research questions, five steps were taken to analyze the sentences from these eight travel articles. The five steps are explained as follows.

Step 1: Each sentence in headlines, body stories, and captions from travel articles was examined. The persuasive linguistic devices found were classified into two categories: figurative devices and non-figurative devices.

Step 2: Linguistic devices in the category of figurative devices were further classified. The classification of figurative devices was summarized in Table 6. The present study established this framework by combining the figures of speech from Jarvie (1993); Reinking, Hart, and Osten (1993); Gilman (1994); Hall (2001);

Valentine (2005); Zhang (2005); Hughes (2006); Djafarova and Andersen (2007); Avraham (2008); and George (2010).

**Table 6** The classification of figurative devices

Subcategories	Classifications
simile	an explicit comparison between two unlike things with the use of a comparative word such as <i>like</i> or <i>as</i>
metaphor	a comparison between two different things by not using a comparative word such as <i>like</i> or <i>as</i> and a linking verb is used in some metaphors
hyperbole	an exaggerated statement which highlights the importance of something
meiosis	emphasizing the importance of things by lessening the actual level of things in the point which is highlighted
litotes	an understatement expressing an affirmative statement by using a negative or opposite
euphemism	the use of an indirect expression substituting the sensitive saying, offensive words, and unpleasant topics for more acceptable ones
personification	giving human attributes to nonhuman things such as nonliving things, animals, and abstract ideas
apostrophe	a statement to a nonhuman thing or nonexistent person which is addressed as if it were a person and could understand what the speaker says and the personal pronoun <i>you</i> and determiner <i>your</i> are usually used
pun	words having the same sounds but different meanings
alliteration	the repetition of an initial consonant sound in neighboring words
rhyme	the repetition of a terminal sound of words

Step 3: Linguistic devices in the category of non-figurative devices were further classified. The classification of non-figurative devices was summarized in Table 7. The present study established this framework by combining the non-figurative devices from Conlin, Herman, and Martin (1978); McCarthy (1998); Buss and Karnowski (2002); Jordan (2002); Struder, Urbanek, and Holmes (2004);

Summers and Adrian-Vallance (2007); Wolfe (2007); Cowan (2008); Pilbeam, Kerr, and Naudé (2008); Cheng Lim (2009); Merrick (2009); and Riccardi and Perillo (2009).

**Table 7** The classification of non-figurative devices

Subcategories	Classifications
second person pronouns	the pronoun used by a speaker in referring to a person whom a speaker talks to
testimonials	Using famous people such as superstars and celebrities to promote products by using their quotes
bandwagon	using the idea of ‘everybody is doing it’ to persuade the readers to do something by using pronouns or noun phrases showing the majority such as <i>everyone</i> , <i>most students</i> , and <i>nine out of ten teenagers</i>
repetition	the use of the same word or phrase many times to emphasize something
rhetorical questions	questions that do not want answers but make the readers think about what is being asked
modal verbs	verbs assisting main verbs to convey the moods of the subjects and express persuasion, possibility, ability, and willingness, including <i>can</i> , <i>could</i> , <i>may</i> , <i>might</i> , <i>shall</i> , <i>should</i> , <i>will</i> , <i>would</i> , and <i>must</i>
imperative sentences	sentences beginning with verbs and omitting the understood subject <i>you</i>
conditional sentences	sentences consisting of a main clause and a subordinate clause which begins with <i>if</i>
positive adjectives	adjectives expressing the positive characteristics of things or ideas
comparative adjectives	adjectives comparing the difference between two things
superlative adjectives	adjectives comparing at least three things and stating that something is at the highest or the lowest degree
description	writing which gives details about what someone or something is like

**Table 7** (Continued)

Subcategories	Classifications
intensifiers	a kind of adverb which strengthens the meanings of adjectives and other adverbs such as <i>very</i> , <i>really</i> , and <i>absolutely</i>

Step 4: The frequency of each subcategory was calculated. The frequencies were ordered from the most frequent to the least frequent.

Step 5: Subcategories were examined in terms of characteristics and functions to investigate how they are used in the travel articles.

### Verification of Research

There were three approaches to establish accuracy and credibility of the findings in the present study. First, the frameworks of figurative devices and non-figurative devices were from credible sources. These frameworks were created based on suggestions of experts in the linguistic field. Second, the discussions of the figurative and non-figurative examples were checked by a native speaker for their appropriateness and naturalness. Third, fifteen percent of the data was checked by an expert in linguistics. This part of the data was selected from one travel article containing the most persuasive devices. According to Miles and Huberman (1994), the level of reliability is calculated by dividing the number of agreements by the total number of agreements and disagreements. Miles and Huberman pointed out that 80 percent agreement is reasonable reliability. In the present study, the level of reliability is around 94 percent. The researcher discussed the discrepancies with the expert, and revised the frameworks and analysis according to the advice.

## CHAPTER IV

### RESULTS

The present study aims to study the persuasive linguistic devices used in four travel magazines, namely Lonely Planet, Condé Nast Traveller, National Geographic Traveler, and Travel + Leisure. The study classifies persuasive devices into two categories: figurative devices and non-figurative devices. Then, linguistic devices in these categories are examined to find out how often they are used.

This chapter presents the results of the study. It is divided into three sections: (1) overall results of persuasive linguistic devices, (2) figurative devices used as persuasion, and (3) non-figurative devices used as persuasion.

#### **Overall Results of Persuasive Linguistic Devices**

There are both figurative and non-figurative devices found in all four travel magazines, namely Lonely Planet, Condé Nast Traveller, National Geographic Traveler, and Travel + Leisure. The frequency of each persuasive device from both figurative and non-figurative categories found in the travel articles from each travel magazine is presented in Table 8.

**Table 8** The frequency of each persuasive linguistic device in each travel magazine

	<b>Lonely Planet</b>	<b>Condé Nast Traveller</b>	<b>National Geographic Traveler</b>	<b>Travel + Leisure</b>
<b>Figurative Devices</b>				
personifications	7(2.90%)	5(5.10%)	24(10.61%)	6(10.71%)
metaphors	5(2.07%)	9(9.19%)	9(3.98%)	3(5.36%)
similes	10(4.13%)	5(5.10%)	6(2.66%)	1(1.79%)
hyperboles	3(1.24%)	1(1.02%)	3(1.33%)	2(3.57%)
alliteration	1(0.41%)	1(1.02%)	6(2.66%)	-
rhymes	1(0.41%)	-	1(0.44%)	-
total	27(11.16%)	21(21.43%)	49(21.68%)	12(21.43%)
<b>Non-Figurative Devices</b>				
positive adjectives	59(24.38%)	28(28.57%)	57(25.22%)	22(39.29%)
second person pronouns	51(21.07%)	7(7.14%)	34(15.04%)	8(14.28%)
imperative sentences	47(19.42%)	-	42(18.58%)	-
descriptions	22(9.09%)	22(22.45%)	10(4.42%)	8(14.28%)
superlative adjectives	15(6.20%)	8(8.17%)	15(6.64%)	4(7.14%)
intensifiers	10(4.13%)	7(7.14%)	2(0.89%)	-
modal verbs	5(2.07%)	-	7(3.10%)	-
comparative adjectives	1(0.41%)	3(3.06%)	4(1.77%)	1(1.79%)
rhetorical questions	3(1.24%)	-	3(1.33%)	1(1.79%)
conditional sentences	2(0.83%)	1(1.02%)	3(1.33%)	-
testimonials	-	1(1.02%)	-	-
total	215(88.84%)	77(78.57%)	177(78.32%)	44(78.57%)
<b>Total</b>	242(100%)	98(100%)	226(100%)	56(100%)

From Table 8, the total number of non-figurative instances was more than the total number of figurative instances in each travel magazine. For figurative devices, personifications were most frequently used in two travel magazines, namely National Geographic Traveler and Travel + Leisure. As for non-figurative devices, positive adjectives were most frequently used in all four travel magazines.

The total number of persuasive linguistic expressions including both figurative devices and non-figurative devices found in the eight travel articles was 622. The frequency of each linguistic device is shown in Table 9 ordered from the highest frequency to the lowest frequency.

**Table 9** The frequency of each persuasive linguistic device

Linguistic Devices	Frequencies	
	Number	Percent
positive adjectives	166	26.69
second person pronouns	100	16.08
imperative sentences	89	14.31
descriptions	62	9.97
superlative adjectives	42	6.75
personifications	42	6.75
metaphors	26	4.18
similes	22	3.54
intensifiers	19	3.05
modal verbs	12	1.93
comparative adjectives	9	1.45
hyperboles	9	1.45
alliteration	8	1.29
rhetorical questions	7	1.12
conditional sentences	6	0.96
rhymes	2	0.32
testimonials	1	0.16
<b>Total</b>	<b>622</b>	<b>100</b>

From Table 9, 17 persuasive devices from the total of 24 persuasive devices in the framework were found in the travel magazines. The devices most frequently used were positive adjectives (26.69%), second person pronouns (16.08%), and imperative sentences (14.31%).

The persuasive devices found in the study can be divided into two categories: figurative devices and non-figurative devices. The frequencies of the linguistic devices in the two separate categories are presented in Table 10.

**Table 10** The frequencies of figurative and non-figurative devices

Figurative Devices	Frequencies		Non-Figurative Devices	Frequencies	
	Number	Percent		Number	Percent
personifications	42	38.53	positive adjectives	166	32.36
metaphors	26	23.85	second person pronouns	100	19.49
similes	22	20.18	imperative sentences	89	17.35
hyperboles	9	8.26	descriptions	62	12.09
alliteration	8	7.34	superlative adjectives	42	8.19
rhymes	2	1.84	intensifiers	19	3.70
			modal verbs	12	2.34
			comparative adjectives	9	1.75
			rhetorical questions	7	1.36
			conditional sentences	6	1.17
			testimonials	1	0.20
<b>Total</b>	109	100	<b>Total</b>	513	100

From Table 10, the total number of figurative instances was 109 (17.52%) while the total number of non-figurative instances was 513 (82.48%). The fact that figurative devices are used less than non-figurative devices in the travel magazines is not surprising. This is because understanding the meanings of figurative devices is more difficult than understanding those of non-figurative devices; the interpretations of figurative devices are beyond the literal meanings.

In the category of figurative devices, the device most frequently used was personification. As for the category of non-figurative devices, the device most frequently used was the positive adjective. The devices in each category are explained in detail in the next sections.

### Figurative Devices Used as Persuasion

Among the 11 figurative devices discussed in the framework, six of them were found in the travel magazines, namely personifications, metaphors, similes, hyperboles, alliteration, and rhymes. The proportion of these figurative devices is shown in Table 11.

**Table 11** The frequency of each figurative device

Linguistic Devices	Frequencies	
	Number	Percent
personifications	42	38.53
metaphors	26	23.85
similes	22	20.18
hyperboles	9	8.26
alliteration	8	7.34
rhymes	2	1.84
<b>Total</b>	109	100

From Table 11, the figurative devices most frequently used in the travel magazines were personifications (38.53%), metaphors (23.85%), and similes (20.18%). The figurative devices less frequently used were hyperboles (8.26%), alliteration (7.34%), and rhymes (1.84%). The characteristics and examples of these figurative devices are explained as follows.

#### 1. Personifications

Personifications are expressions which show that nonhuman things have human attributes (Hall, 2001). There are 42 personifications found in the travel magazines. These personifications are further divided into five subtypes based on the ways human attributes are created, as shown in Table 12.

**Table 12** The subtypes of creating personifications

Subtypes	Frequencies	
	Number	Percent
using human actions	14	33.33
using parts of the human body	13	30.95
using human adjectives	6	14.29
using human personalities	7	16.67
using personal reference	2	4.76
<b>Total</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>100</b>

### 1.1 Using Human Actions

Verbs expressing actions usually carried out by humans are used with places.

#### Example 1:

Over the next three days, Steve and I will poke around in some of the most striking landscape to be found anywhere in California: subtle desert, vast lakes, fairy-tale **mountains** that gradually **wear** a thicker and thicker frosting of snow. (Travel + Leisure)

In this example, the verb *wear* was used with the mountains. This personification conveys a clear picture of the mountains fully covered with snow.

#### Example 2:

That night, at your hotel, you're grateful for the log fire, and **the hot-water bottle** that **awaits** you in your bed. (National Geographic Traveler)

In this example, the verb *await* was used with the hot-water bottle. This personification conveys a clear picture of the warmth of the hotel's welcome.

## 1.2 Using Parts of the Human Body

Parts of the human body are used with places. The meaning of this personification relies on the function of a particular organ. The body part *heart* is the most frequently used in the travel magazines.

### Example 1:

This former Mexican barrio is now **the heart of Koreatown**, but it also hosts Thai, Vietnamese, and Armenian eateries. (National Geographic Traveler)

In this example, the body part *heart* was used with Koreatown, which was treated like a living thing. This personification conveys that the place is an important or central part of the Korean community.

### Example 2:

**Hovsgol** is just now opening its **arms** to travelers who come to catch and release taimen, giant salmonid ‘river wolves’ that stalk Hovsgol’s waterways. (National Geographic Traveler)

In this example, the body part *arms* were used with Hovsgol, which was treated like a living thing. This personification conveys the welcoming atmosphere of this place.

## 1.3 Using Human Adjectives

Adjectives describing the characteristics of humans are used with places.

**Example 1:**

And **the palms** are **greedy** drinkers, absorbing over 90 percent of available rainfall in the forest. (Condé Nast Traveller)

In this example, the adjective *greedy*, which is usually a characteristic of humans, was used with the palms. This personification conveys that the palms need a lot of water.

**Example 2:**

Perched above the Pennines like a rocky outcrop, this is **England's highest pub**. It's also one of **the loneliest**, providing shelter and beer through the centuries to drovers, farmers and, more recently, cyclists and walkers. (Lonely Planet)

In this example, the adjective *lonely*, which is usually described humans, was used with the pub of Tan Hill Inn. This personification presents the extraordinary characteristic of the place; it conveys that this pub is the only place on the highest point in Yorkshire.

**1.4 Using Human Personalities**

Words expressing things associated with humans are used with places.

**Example 1:**

**Sandpipers** dart about the flat terrain, pecking at the margin between land and sea while hunting **their dinner**. (Lonely Planet)

In this example, the noun *dinner*, which is a meal of humans in the evening, was used with sandpipers. This personification conveys the lives of sandpipers which look for their food in the evening.

**Example 2:**

**Sentinels** of the city's past, **smokestacks** are the only remnants of a huge waterfront steel mill torn down to make way for a shopping complex. (National Geographic Traveler)

In this example, the noun *sentinels*, which refer to soldiers standing outside a building as guards, was used with smokestacks. This personification conveys that the smokestacks which are imagined as soldiers standing to guard the place have been with the city for a long time and become part of this city.

**1.5 Using Personal Reference**

A personal pronoun and a noun referring to humans are used with places.

**Example 1:**

The glossy venue overlooks the Harland and Wolff slipways where **the Titanic** set sail to Southampton to begin **her** fateful voyage to New York. (National Geographic Traveler)

In this example, with the use of the pronoun *her*, the Titanic was imagined as a woman. This personification conveys that the Titanic is alive as a famous person in history.

**Example 2:**

**Dresden The Comeback Kid** (National Geographic Traveler)

In this example, with the use of noun *kid*, Dresden was imagined as a kid. This personification conveys the freshness and liveliness of the place.

To conclude, there are five ways to create personifications in the travel magazines. These include using action verbs, parts of the body, adjectives, personalities, and pronouns which are associated with humans. The purpose of these personifications is to encourage the readers to be interested in places by making them have lively, animated images of places with the use of human attributes.

## 2. Metaphors

Metaphors are comparisons between two different things without comparative words (Reinking *et al.*, 1993). There are 26 metaphors found in the travel magazines. Based on the structures, these metaphors are further divided into visible metaphors and invisible metaphors which are shown in Table 13.

**Table 13** The frequencies of visible metaphors and invisible metaphors

Subtypes	Frequencies	
	Number	Percent
visible metaphors	4	15.38
invisible metaphors	22	84.62
<b>Total</b>	26	100

### 1. Visible Metaphors

Visible metaphors use the verb *to be* or linking verbs to connect places and other things by using the form 'A is B'.

#### Example 1:

The city's latest, and largest, **gem is Germany's Military History Museum**, which opened in October. (National Geographic Traveler)

In this example, the Military History Museum was compared with a gem by using the form ‘A is B’. This visible metaphor conveys that this museum is very special and valuable like a jewel.

### **Example 2:**

With their luxury resorts and royal guests, the islands are familiar as a tropical idyll for the rich and famous. Tim Ecott, however, celebrates their simpler side, where **nature is king**. (Condé Nast Traveller)

In this example, the nature in Seychelles Islands was compared with a king by using the form ‘A is B’. This visible metaphor conveys that the nature is very important in these islands.

## **2. Invisible Metaphors**

Invisible metaphors indirectly connect places and other things by not using the form ‘A is B’. Most of the invisible metaphors found in the travel magazines include both tenor and vehicle.

### **Example 1:**

To the west, you can see across to the rolling **whalebacks** of **the Black Mountains and Brecon Beacons**, and to the east, the ground slopes away to the fields and cider orchards of Herefordshire. (Lonely Planet)

In this example, the Black Mountains and Brecon Beacons were compared with whalebacks without using the form ‘A is B’. This invisible metaphor conveys the characteristic of the ranges of mountains as whaleback lookalikes.

**Example 2:**

At night we feast-beginning with **the jewel** of Alba: **the white truffle**. We devour them on tagliarini, as we have every Christmas Eve for 20 years, at the Martin family's convivial, warm, and elegant Ristorante Da Fiore, in the San Polo district across the Rialto Bridge. (Travel + Leisure)

In this example, the white truffle was compared with a jewel without using the form 'A is B'. This invisible metaphor conveys that this truffle is very expensive like a jewel.

Moreover, based on the word categories, 26 metaphors can be further divided into noun metaphors and adjectival metaphors which are shown in Table 14.

**Table 14** The frequencies of noun metaphors and adjectival metaphors

Subtypes	Frequencies	
	Number	Percent
noun metaphors	23	88.46
adjectival metaphors	3	11.54
<b>Total</b>	26	100

**1. Noun Metaphors**

For noun metaphors, nouns are used in comparison between places and other things.

**Example 1:**

It occupies a prime position on a small bay looking directly out towards the **island of Curieuse**, a great rumpled **cushion** of greenery about a mile offshore. (Condé Nast Traveller)

In this example, the noun *Curieuse Island* was compared with the noun *cushion*. This noun metaphor conveys the picture of the island filled with a lot of trees since the word *cushion* means ‘a cloth pillow with a soft filling’.

### **Example 2:**

Straddling the borders between Rwanda, Uganda, and the Democratic Republic of the Congo, **the eight-volcano chain** is one of Earth’s most active volcanic regions and **a veritable salad bowl** for mountain gorillas, chimpanzees, elephants, and other wildlife. (National Geographic Traveler)

In this example, the noun phrase *eight-volcano chain* was compared with the noun phrase *a veritable salad bowl*. This noun metaphor conveys that there is an abundance of trees in these volcanoes which supply food for wild animals.

## **2. Adjectival Metaphors**

For adjectival metaphors, adjectives are used in comparison between places and other things.

### **Example 1:**

For several hours, we walked among **the towering palms**, listening as the wind made them rub their enormous leaves together to create a sound like the creaking of a ship’s rigging. (Condé Nast Traveller)

In this example, the palms were compared with the adjective *towering*. This adjectival metaphor conveys that the palms are very tall and thin.

### Example 2:

What's so extraordinary about Siesta Key Beach is the **powdery**-soft, alabaster-coloured **sand**, which fairy glitters in the light. Unlike most other Florida beaches, whose sand is composed of shards of shell and bits of broken coral-brutal on the soles of your feet-here it's composed of 99 per cent pure white quartz, which is a joy to walk upon. (Lonely Planet)

In this example, the sand was compared with the adjective *powdery*. This adjectival metaphor conveys that the sand on Siesta Key Beach is fine and soft.

In summary, based on the structures, there are both visible and invisible metaphors in the travel magazines. Based on the word categories, noun metaphors and adjectival metaphors were found in the samples. The main purpose of these metaphors is to persuade the readers to be interested in places by making them imagine the characteristics of places with the use of comparison between places and other familiar things.

### 3. Similes

Similes are explicit comparisons with the use of comparative words (Reinking *et al.*, 1993). There are 22 similes used in the travel magazines. These similes are further divided into two subtypes based on the forms of similes which are shown in Table 15.

**Table 15** The subtypes of simile forms

Subtypes	Frequencies	
	Number	Percent
using the comparative word 'like'	21	95.45
using the comparative structure 'as...as...'	1	4.55
<b>Total</b>	22	100

### 3.1 Using the Comparative Word ‘like’

The comparative word ‘like’ is used to connect places and other things.

#### Example 1:

Around Rotorua, a Maori heartland, it’s easy to believe the struggle continues, as **the eerie landscape** bubbles and churns **like some primordial stew**. (National Geographic Traveler)

In this example, the comparative word ‘like’ was used to form a comparison. This simile conveys that a landscape having a heated liquid bubbling appearance looks like the food *stew*.

#### Example 2:

**Some buildings** look **like wedding cakes**, **others like pyramids**, and others-such as the Beach Patrol Headquarters, with its brushed-aluminium railings and porthole windows-conjure up the great transatlantic luxury liners. (Lonely Planet)

In this example, the comparative word ‘like’ was used to form two comparisons. These similes convey that the shapes of these buildings are reminiscent of wedding cakes and pyramids.

### 3.2 Using the Comparative Structure ‘as...as...’

The comparative structure ‘as...as...’ is used to connect the place and another thing. There is only one simile using this type of comparative word found in the travel magazines.

**Example:**

Even amid the kerfuffle of the Medina, **the amplified wail from the mosque is inescapable-as persistent as the constant wind that blows in off the ocean.** (Condé Nast Traveller)

In this example, the comparative structure ‘as...as...’ was used to form a comparison. This simile conveys that the persistent sound from the mosque is like the constant flow of the wind from the ocean.

In conclusion, there are two forms of similes in the travel magazines. These forms use comparative words ‘like’ and ‘as...as...’ to connect places and other things. The purpose of these similes is to make the readers interested in places by making them imagine the characteristics of places with the use of overt comparison between places and other familiar things.

**4. Hyperboles, Alliteration, and Rhymes**

Other figures of speech which were less frequently used in the travel magazines include hyperboles, alliteration, and rhymes which are shown in Table 16.

**Table 16** The frequencies of hyperboles, alliteration, and rhymes

Linguistic Devices	Frequencies	
	Number	Percent
hyperboles	9	8.26
alliteration	8	7.34
rhymes	2	1.84

**4.1 Hyperboles** refer to overstatements which emphasize something (Reinking *et al.*, 1993).

**Example 1:**

Modelled in 1830 after colonial-era Philadelphia, with village greens, Gothic churches, salt-box cottages and grand, turreted Queen Anne mansions, the little town has **a frozen-in-time quality** like a Norman Rockwell painting come to life, a portrait of Americana unspoilt by development. (Lonely Planet)

In this example, the phrase ‘a frozen-in-time quality’ is an overstatement. This hyperbole emphasizes how the town is still unspoiled by the development.

**Example 2:**

After dinner, we stroll around the corner for midnight mass (whatever our religion) at the monolithic Franciscan Church of Santa Maria Gloriosa dei Frari. We take in **the world’s most beautiful altarpiece**, Titian’s Assumption (1516-18), while a children’s choir sings Christmas carols. (Travel + Leisure)

In this example, the phrase ‘the world’s most beautiful altarpiece’ is an overstatement. This hyperbole emphasizes that the artwork behind the altar of this church is very beautiful.

In summary, the purpose of hyperboles is to emphasize the distinctive characteristics of places by using exaggerated expressions.

**4.2 Alliteration** refers to the repetition of an initial consonant sound (Djafarova and Andersen, 2007).

**Example 1:**

**Quintessential Cottage Country**

Just two hours by car-but a world away-from powerhouse Toronto beats the heart of Ontario's cottage country, Muskoka. Families have gathered here for generations to revel in true wilderness. . . (National Geographic Traveler)

In this example, the alliteration was composed of the repetition of the initial consonant sound /k/. This alliteration describes the cottage in woodland, which is the main attraction of Muskoka in Ontario, Canada.

**Example 2:**

**The Next Foodie Frontier**

. . .In cities and villages, seafood markets overflow with fresh fish and shellfish, and produce stalls are piled high with native delicacies. . . The result is a bright, piquant cuisine that draws upon not only native Quechua culture but also almost 500 years of Spanish, African, Chinese, and Japanese immigration. Those influences shine in many of Peru's most iconic dishes. . . (National Geographic Traveler)

In this example, the alliteration was composed of the repetition of the initial consonant sound /f/. This alliteration describes the varieties of food, which are the main attraction of Peru.

In conclusion, the purpose of alliteration is to show the main characteristics of places, particularly in headlines in order to make the readers remember the characteristics of places easily.

**4.3 Rhymes** refer to the repetition of a terminal sound of words (George, 2010).

**Example 1:**

Through frosty glens to warming whisky

Along with Ben Nevis and Loch Lomond, the great valley of Glen Coe is one of Scotland's best-loved locations, home to some of the country's most admired scenery. . .After walking back down the glen, top off your day in the Clachaig Inn, a spot long favoured by hikers and climbers. The bar offers more than 200 whiskies. . . (Lonely Planet)

In this example, the rhyme was composed of the repetition of the terminal sound /i/. This rhyme describes the frosty valleys and the whisky, which are the main attraction of the Scottish Highlands.

**Example 2:**

**Faster, Higher, Stronger**

The last time London hosted the Olympics, in 1948, . . .nearly \$15 billion has been spent on sprucing up the capital for the 2012 Olympics. . .A new cable car across the Thames will provide a thrilling perspective on this changing cityscape. . .The city transformed 608 acres of contaminated wasteland into one of the U.K.'s largest urban parks, with riverside gardens, markets, and cafés. . . (National Geographic Traveler)

In this example, the rhyme was composed of the repetition of the terminal sound /ər/. This rhyme describes the renovation in London making the city more dynamic for the 2012 Olympic.

In summary, like alliteration, the purpose of rhymes is to show the main characteristics of places, especially in headlines to make the readers remember the characteristics of places.

To conclude, from the six figurative devices found in the travel magazines, the persuasive devices which were most frequently used to make the readers fascinated in the characteristics of places include (1) personifications giving animated images of places with the use of human attributes, (2) metaphors giving imaginary pictures of

places with the use of comparison between places and other familiar things, and (3) similes providing imaginary pictures of places with the use of overt comparison between places and other familiar things.

### Non-Figurative Devices Used as Persuasion

The number of non-figurative instances found in the travel magazines is much more than the number of figurative instances. Among the total of 13 non-figurative devices discussed in the framework, 11 of them were found in the travel magazines. These non-figurative devices include positive adjectives, second person pronouns, imperative sentences, descriptions, superlative adjectives, intensifiers, modal verbs, comparative adjectives, rhetorical questions, conditional sentences, and testimonials. The proportion of the non-figurative devices of persuasion is shown in Table 17.

**Table 17** The frequency of each non-figurative device

Linguistic Devices	Frequencies	
	Number	Percent
positive adjectives	166	32.36
second person pronouns	100	19.49
imperative sentences	89	17.35
descriptions	62	12.09
superlative adjectives	42	8.19
intensifiers	19	3.70
modal verbs	12	2.34
comparative adjectives	9	1.75
rhetorical questions	7	1.36
conditional sentences	6	1.17
testimonials	1	0.20
<b>Total</b>	<b>513</b>	<b>100</b>

From Table 17, the non-figurative devices frequently used in the travel magazines were positive adjectives (32.36%), second person pronouns (19.49%),

imperative sentences (17.35%), and descriptions (12.09%). Those that were less frequently used included superlative adjectives (8.19%), intensifiers (3.70%), modal verbs (2.34%), comparative adjectives (1.75%), rhetorical questions (1.36%), conditional sentences (1.17%), and testimonials (0.20%). The characteristics and examples of these non-figurative devices are explained as follows.

### 1. Positive Adjectives

Positive adjectives are adjectives expressing positive meanings (Buss and Karnowski, 2002). There are 166 positive adjectives found in the travel magazines. Examples of these positive adjectives include *famous, tranquil, relaxing, pleasant, pretty, smart, comfy, cosy, good, important, delicious, amazing, special, and exhilarating*.

In addition, many of these adjectives evoke feelings of ‘extremely good’ and ‘extremely attractive’. Examples of adjectives with these senses are *great, perfect, excellent, gorgeous, stunning, and splendid*.

#### Example 1:

**Eco-friendly** bungalows along the **pristine** beaches of nearby Tayrona National Park offer a **tranquil** base from which to begin the vigorous three-day uphill hike past traditional villages of the Kogui people. (National Geographic Traveler)

In this example, the positive adjectives *eco-friendly, pristine, and tranquil* meaning ‘good for the environment’, ‘fresh, clean, unspoiled’, and ‘pleasantly calm’ respectively were used to describe bungalows and beaches. These positive adjectives convey the environmental concern of the bungalows, the good condition of beaches, and the good atmosphere of the bungalows.

**Example 2:**

This portion of Mulholland is the knife-edge ridge cleaving the valley from the L.A. basin, delivering **magnificent** views on both sides. (National Geographic Traveler)

In this example, the adjective *magnificent* meaning ‘extremely attractive’ was used to describe the views of Mulholland. This positive adjective conveys that the views there are very attractive.

In conclusion, the purpose of positive adjectives is to persuade the readers to visit places by presenting the positive characteristics of those places. Positive adjectives having the senses of ‘extremely good’ and ‘extremely attractive’ were often used in the travel magazines.

**2. Second Person Pronouns**

A second person pronoun is the pronoun used by a speaker in referring to a person whom a speaker talks to (Summers and Adrian-Vallance, 2007). There are 100 instances of the use of second person pronouns, including their possessive and reflexive forms in the travel magazines.

**Example 1:**

That night, at **your** hotel, **you**’re grateful for the log fire, and the hot-water bottle that awaits **you** in **your** bed. (National Geographic Traveler)

In this example, the pronoun *you* and its possessive form *your* were used in describing the service of the hotel in Sri Lanka’s hill country. These second person pronouns were used to encourage the readers to visit the place by making them feel a sense of being involved in this hotel.

**Example 2:**

Warm **yourself** by the fire in the bar or one of the smaller rooms before heading through the restaurant, where meals include Cotswold lamb with slow-cooked courgettes in garlic, steak and kidney pie, and guinea fowl with roast mushrooms and Madeira. (Lonely Planet)

In this example, the second person reflexive pronoun *yourself* was used to recommend what to do in the pub of the Fox Inn. This second person pronoun was used to persuade the readers to visit the place by making them feel a sense of being involved in this pub.

To conclude, the purpose of second person pronoun is to persuade the readers to visit places by making them get involved in places. The use of these pronouns also includes their possessive and reflexive forms.

**3. Imperative Sentences**

Imperative sentences are sentences beginning with verbs and omitting the subject *you* (Conlin, Herman, and Martin, 1978). There are 89 imperative sentences found in the travel magazines. These imperative sentences are used to suggest directions and activities. Sometimes, a transition word or a coordinating conjunction such as *then*, or *and* was used to connect imperative clauses to show a sequence of directions and activities.

**Example 1:**

Once you've crossed the railway bridge, **turn** left onto the first unmarked country road, which leads past a small lake. (Lonely Planet)

In this example, the imperative sentence begins with the verb *turn*. This imperative sentence was used to suggest directions for walking in Cotswolds.

**Example 2:**

**Hunt** for antiques along Petaluma's downtown Victorian row, and **dine** on seasonal sake-steamed, aged abalone at Michelin-starred Cyrus in Healdsburg. (National Geographic Traveler)

In this example, two imperative clauses beginning with the verbs *hunt* and *dine* were connected by the coordinating conjunction *and*. This imperative sentence in the coordinate structure was used to suggest a lot of myriad activities offered in Sonoma County, California.

To summarize, the purpose of imperative sentences is to persuade the readers to visit places by suggesting where to go and what to do on trips. When there is a series of directions or activities, a coordinating conjunction is used to connect imperative clauses.

**4. Descriptions**

Description is writing which informs what something is like by building the visual appearance in the readers' minds (Voss and Keene, 1992). There are 62 descriptions found in the travel magazines. Description gives vivid details of a particular place by using a verbose style of writing.

**Example 1:**

And birds are everywhere-great herons and snowy egrets wading through the mudflats, pelicans and cormorants in treetops, and large flocks of ibis taking wing in billowing blankets of white. (Lonely Planet)

In this example, the description presents the kinds of birds, what they are doing, and where they are. This description conveys the detail of attractive birds in Everglades National Park.

**Example 2:**

Pelicans bob on the rolling waves, which are normally measured in inches, not feet. No thundering surf, just the gentle ‘hurrah-hurrah’ from the mellow emerald waters. Sandpipers dart about the flat terrain, pecking at the margin between land and sea while hunting their dinner. (Lonely Planet)

In this example, the description shows the types of birds, their actions, their positions, and the characteristics of the water. This description conveys the detail of the charming birds and sea at Siesta Key Beach.

In summary, the purpose of descriptions is to persuade the readers to be interested in places by sending visual pictures of places to the readers’ minds with the use of verbose writing.

**5. Superlative Adjectives**

Superlative adjectives are adjectives stating that something is at the greatest degree in comparing at least three things (Buss and Karnowski, 2002). There are 42 superlative adjectives found in the travel magazines. These superlative adjectives serve to present interesting facts or opinions about places by expressing the highest degree of a particular quality.

**Example 1:**

There are plenty of reasons to visit Peru: to explore ancient ruins at Machu Picchu, spot some of the world’s **rarest** birds, or trek some of Earth’s **deepest** canyons. (National Geographic Traveler)

In this example, the superlative adjectives *rarest* and *deepest* were used to show interesting facts about Peru. These superlative adjectives convey attractive information about birds and canyons in Peru.

**Example 2:**

Walk in the valley of Glen Coe, one of **the most beautiful** spots in the exhilarating Scottish Highlands. (Lonely Planet)

In this example, the superlative adjective *the most beautiful* was used to show the writer's opinion about the valley of Glen Coe. This superlative adjective emphasizes the beauty of this valley.

In conclusion, the main purpose of superlative adjectives is to persuade the readers to visit places by presenting interesting facts or emphasizing good characteristics of places with the expression of the highest degree of a particular quality.

**6. Intensifiers**

Intensifiers are a kind of adverb which strengthens the meanings of adjectives and other adverbs (Merrick, 2009). There are 19 intensifiers found in the travel magazines. All of these intensifiers emphasize the meanings of adjectives. Examples of intensifiers include *very, particularly, completely, wildly, and jolly*.

**Example 1:**

Nature is usually **very** gentle here. The permanently inhabited islands lie just below the equator, and well above the cyclone belt, which is further south towards Mauritius and Madagascar. There is no malaria in the Seychelles and no venomous snakes. (Condé Nast Traveller)

In this example, the intensifier *very* was used with the adjective *gentle*. This intensifier emphasizes that the nature in the Seychelles is harmless since there are no cyclones, malaria, and venomous snakes.

**Example 2:**

An elevation change of a few inches yields an **entirely** different habitat. That's what makes the Everglades so remarkable-nine **distinctly** different ecosystems in an area once dismissed as swamp. (Lonely Planet)

In this example, the intensifiers *entirely* and *distinctly* were used with the adjective *different*. These intensifiers emphasize that there are various environments which cause the diverse types of animals and plants in the Everglades.

To summarize, the purpose of intensifiers is to emphasize the unique characteristics of places by strengthening the meaning of adjectives describing places.

**7. Modal Verbs**

Modal verbs refer to verbs assisting the main verbs (Cheng Lim, 2009). There are 12 modal verbs found in the travel magazines. Three types of modal verbs found in the samples include *should*, *can*, and *must*; all of these are used to give advice or suggestion. Specifically, the modal *should* is used to give advice; the modal *can* is used to suggest an option; and the modal *must* is used to make a strong recommendation.

**Example 1:**

After all, places like L.A. evolve endlessly, so you too **should** always be on the move. On this freewheeling tour of L.A. County, open a window onto the everyday charms that residents cherish—secret beaches, neighborhood farmer markets, hidden hiking trails, canyon wine bars, and roads locals actually enjoy driving. (National Geographic Traveler)

In this example, the modal verb *should* was used to advise the readers. This modal verb conveys the advice to take road trips to appreciate the beautiful surroundings in Los Angeles.

**Example 2:**

But even a backpacker **can** hop in a rental car and take off along one of the sultan's well-maintained roads into an ancient landscape barren except for the occasional abandoned fort perched on a mountain ledge or a tuck-away wadi oasis revealing a pool of restorative water. (National Geographic Traveler)

In this example, the modal verb *can* was used to suggest an option of the trip. This modal verb conveys the suggestion to take a rental car and visit the ancient landscape and the wadi oasis.

**Example 3:**

Patrick Leigh Fermor, the dashing philhellene who died last June, knew that to get under Greece's skin you **must** stray from the instant gratifications of its seaside resorts. Travelling on foot across the gorges of Roumeli and mountains of Mani, Leigh Fermor discovered a land of fierce beauty where traditions run deep. (National Geographic Traveler)

In this example, the modal verb *must* was used to recommend the readers. This modal verb conveys the recommendation to move from the resorts located near the sea to experience the traditions of Greece at the gorges of Roumeli and mountains of Mani.

To summarize, there are three types of modal verbs, namely *should*, *can*, and *must* found in the travel magazines. The main purpose of these modal verbs is to suggest activities on trips.

## 8. Comparative Adjectives

Comparative adjectives are used to compare the difference between two things (Buss and Karnowski, 2002). There are nine comparative adjectives found in the travel magazines. These comparative adjectives present the characteristics of places by expressing the higher degree of a particular quality in comparison.

### Example 1:

It is the type of classic Highland scenery that decorates a million tins of souvenir shortbread, and it's all the **more dramatic** in winter, when the mountains are covered in a layer of snow. (Lonely Planet)

In this example, the comparative adjective *more dramatic* was used to compare Highland scenery in different seasons. This comparative adjective conveys that the scene of this highland in winter leaves a greater impression on visitors than in other seasons.

### Example 2:

Up to 25 percent of the world's tropical fish species swim in the protected waters around Koh Lipe (the island is in Tarutao National Marine Park). Pattaya Beach may be the island's most developed tourist spot, but head to **quieter** Sunrise Beach, where a now settled community of 'sea gypsies,' the Chao Lei, live and fish. (National Geographic Traveler)

In this example, the comparative adjective *quieter* was used to compare the atmosphere of two different beaches; Pattaya Beach and Sunrise Beach. This comparative adjective conveys that the atmosphere of Sunrise Beach is more peaceful than Pattaya Beach.

In summary, the purpose of these comparative adjectives is to persuade the readers to visit places by showing the better characteristics of places with the

expression of a higher degree of a particular quality in comparison. The comparison may involve comparing the same place at different times or comparing two different places.

## 9. Rhetorical Questions

Rhetorical questions refer to questions which do not require answers (Jordan, 2002). There are seven rhetorical questions found in the travel magazines. These rhetorical questions include questions with subject-verb inversion and informal questions with no inversion. The answers to these rhetorical questions were also given by the writers.

### Example 1:

**What is it about this tiny island that draws such great talent?** ‘Key West is the very end of the world,’ . . . Life unfurls slowly. It’s hardly a stretch to imagine crafting the great American novel in such a lazy, liberating environment. (Lonely Planet)

In this example, the rhetorical question involves subject-verb inversion. The purpose of this rhetorical question is to convey the dominance of Key West Island which has contributed to the production of at least 18 Pulitzer Prize-winning novelists. Later, the writer gave an answer to this question; it is the relaxing and liberating environment of Key West which draws such talent.

### Example 2:

**And this community’s biggest point of pride?** Its spectacular public beach. What’s so extraordinary about Siesta Key Beach is the powdery-soft, alabaster-coloured sand, which fairy glitters in the light. (Lonely Planet)

In this example, the rhetorical question is posed informally, with no subject-verb inversion. The purpose of this rhetorical question is to convey the importance of Siesta Key Island. The answer to the question is immediately given in the next sentence; the public beach is the dominant characteristic of this community.

To conclude, the purpose of rhetorical questions is to stimulate the readers to be interested in places by asking questions to make the readers interested in the dominant characteristics of places. Then, an answer to the questions is given.

## 10. Conditional Sentences

Conditional sentences use the present tense in an *if*-clause which shows a future event or condition and use an imperative form or a modal verb in the main clause to make a recommendation (Cowan, 2008). There are six conditional sentences found in the travel magazines. These conditional sentences involve suggestions about activities and places.

### Example 1:

**But if you hit one of those beautiful winter days when the sea is calm and the sky is blue, continue along the coast path for about two miles until it curves into the hidden bay and tiny old harbor of Lamorna Cove.** (Lonely Planet)

In this example, the conditional sentence involves the activity of walking along the coast. This conditional sentence recommends the readers to walk along the coast until reaching the harbor on a nice winter day.

### Example 2:

**If you yearn for a connection to the wild, you will find it here.** Hovsgol is the northernmost of Mongolia's 21 provinces, shadowing Russia's border and sharing the great Siberian taiga (subarctic coniferous forest). (National Geographic Traveler)

In this example, the conditional sentence involves a visit to a natural place. This conditional sentence recommends the readers who want to experience nature to visit Hovsgol in Mongolia.

In conclusion, the purpose of conditional sentences is to recommend the activities or places which can be done or can be visited under various conditions.

## 11. Testimonials

Testimonials refer to the use of the quotes of famous people to promote the products (Struder *et al.*, 2004). There is only one testimonial found in the travel magazines. Testimonials use the quote of a famous person to attract the readers to visit the place. The purpose of a testimonial is to show the good characteristics of the place and persuade the readers to visit by using the famous person's quote.

### **Example:**

On leaving the Seychelles in May, **Prince William said he chose the islands because they were a place where 'the stewardship of nature is taken seriously'**. (Condé Nast Traveller)

In this example, the testimonial used a quote from Prince William. This testimonial shows that he visited the Seychelles due to the protection of nature which is the advantage of these islands.

To conclude, from the 11 non-figurative devices found in the travel magazines, the persuasive devices which were most frequently used to promote places include (1) positive adjectives presenting the positive characteristics of places, (2) second person pronouns making the readers feel involved with the places, (3) imperative sentences giving suggestions about places, and (4) descriptions giving details of places to establish pictures of the places in the readers' minds.

## **CHAPTER V**

### **DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS**

The findings concerning persuasive linguistic devices in both figurative and non-figurative categories will be discussed and concluded in this chapter. This chapter includes three sections: (1) a summary of the research process, (2) discussion and conclusions, and (3) limitations and recommendations.

#### **Summary of the Research Process**

This section summarizes the aims and process of the study. The section is divided into two parts: (1) objectives of the study and (2) methodology.

#### **Objectives of the Study**

There are two objectives of the present study. First, the study aims to investigate figurative devices used as persuasion in travel magazines. The second objective is to investigate non-figurative devices used as persuasion in travel magazines.

#### **Methodology**

The study used the purposive sampling method to choose travel magazines and the issue of magazines. The data of the study were collected from travel articles in four travel magazines, namely Lonely Planet, Condé Nast Traveller, National Geographic Traveler, and Travel + Leisure. The December issue was chosen to study the language used in promoting places because Christmas Day and New Year are important celebrations worldwide and December is also the beginning of high season for travel in many parts of the world.

In collecting travel articles, the purposive sampling method was used based on two criteria: (1) the topics of the articles should deal with places and tourist activities and (2) the body stories of the articles should have at least 300 words. Two travel articles meeting these two criteria were selected randomly from each travel magazine. Therefore, the total samples were eight articles.

In the data analysis, there are five steps. First, the persuasive linguistic devices found in each sentence in headlines, body stories, and captions were classified into two categories: figurative and non-figurative devices. Second, the linguistic devices in the figurative category were further classified into subcategories such as similes, metaphors, and hyperboles. Third, linguistic devices in the non-figurative category were further classified into subcategories such as superlative adjectives, imperative sentences, and conditional sentences. Fourth, the frequency of each of these persuasive devices was calculated. Finally, the persuasive devices were analyzed in terms of characteristics and functions to investigate how they were used.

### **Discussion and Conclusions**

This section concludes the results of the present study. The section is divided into two parts according to the two research questions: (1) What figurative devices are frequently used as persuasion in travel magazines? and (2) What non-figurative devices are frequently used as persuasion in travel magazines?

#### **What figurative devices are frequently used as persuasion in travel magazines?**

There are 109 (17.52%) figurative instances found in the travel magazines. These figurative instances belong to six types of figurative devices, which include personifications, metaphors, similes, hyperboles, alliteration, and rhymes. The major characteristics of these figurative, persuasive devices in the travel magazines are summarized as follows.

### 1. Personifications

The purpose of personifications is to persuade the readers to be interested in places by making them have the animated images of places with the use of human attributes. Personifications found in the travel magazines are created in five ways, namely using human action verbs, parts of the human body, adjectives describing humans, human personalities, and pronouns referring to humans. For example, in the sentence ‘And **the palms** are **greedy** drinkers, absorbing over 90 percent of available rainfall in the forest’, the writer used the adjective *greedy* which typically describes humans with the word *palms* to convey that these palms consume a lot of water.

### 2. Metaphors

The purpose of metaphors is to interest the readers with the use of comparison between places and other familiar things. Regarding the structures, both visible metaphors and invisible metaphors are used in the travel magazines. Based on the categories previously mentioned, both noun metaphors and adjectival metaphors are found in the samples. For instance, in the sentence ‘To the west, you can see across to the rolling **whalebacks** of **the Black Mountains and Brecon Beacons**, and to the east, the ground slopes away to the fields and cider orchards of Herefordshire’, the writer used an invisible metaphor to compare two different things indirectly without using the form ‘A is B’; the two nouns *the Black Mountains and Brecon Beacons*, and *whalebacks* are used in the comparison.

### 3. Similes

The purpose of similes is to interest the readers with the use of explicit comparison between places and other familiar things. Based on the types of comparative words, there are two forms of similes in the travel magazines, namely ‘like’ and ‘as...as...’. For example, in the sentence ‘Around Rotorua, a Maori heartland, it’s easy to believe the struggle continues, as **the eerie landscape** bubbles

and churns **like some primordial stew**', the writer used the comparative word 'like' to compare a landscape with stew in terms of its bubbling and simmering appearance.

#### 4. Hyperboles

The purpose of hyperboles is to emphasize the distinguished characteristics of places by using overstatements. For example, in the sentence 'Modelled in 1830 after colonial-era Philadelphia, with village greens, Gothic churches, salt-box cottages and grand, turreted Queen Anne mansions, the little town has **a frozen-in-time quality** like a Norman Rockwell painting come to life, a portrait of Americana unspoilt by development', the writer used the overstatement *a frozen-in-time quality* to emphasize that the town has not changed for a long time.

#### 5. Alliteration

The purpose of alliteration is to make the readers remember the interesting characteristics of places easily by using repetition of initial consonant sounds of words. For instance, in the phrase '**Q**uintessential **C**ottage **C**ountry', the writer used the repetition of the first consonant sound /k/ to describe the cottage in woodland, which is the main attraction of Muskoka in Ontario, Canada.

#### 6. Rhymes

The purpose of rhymes is to make the readers remember the interesting characteristics of places by using repetition of terminal sounds of words. For instance, in the phrase 'Through frosty glens to warming whisky', the writer used the repetition of the terminal sound /i/ to describe the frosty valleys and the whisky, which are the main attraction of the Scottish Highlands.

Of these six subcategories, the figurative devices which were most frequently used were personifications (38.53%), metaphors (23.85%), and similes (20.18%). The main strategy of these three figurative devices is the use of comparison in describing

places. While personifications compare characteristics of places with human attributes, metaphors and similes use other familiar things in comparison of places.

One example of personification is found in the following sentence ‘Over the next three days, Steve and I will poke around in some of the most striking landscape to be found anywhere in California: subtle desert, vast lakes, fairy-tale **mountains** that gradually **wear** a thicker and thicker frosting of snow’. This personification uses the verb usually carried out by humans *wear* to compare the appearance of the mountains fully covered with snow with the appearance of humans wearing clothes. As for metaphors, an example is in the sentence ‘For several hours, we walked among **the towering palms**, listening as the wind made them rub their enormous leaves together to create a sound like the creaking of a ship’s rigging’. This metaphor uses the familiar adjective *towering* to compare the shape of the palms with the shape of towers. The readers can imagine how these palms are very tall and thin by thinking of the shape of towers. For similes, an example is found in the sentence ‘Around Rotorua, a Maori heartland, it’s easy to believe the struggle continues, as **the eerie landscape** bubbles and churns **like some primordial stew**’. This simile compares the landscape of Wai-O-Tapu in Rotorua with the familiar food *stew*. This comparison helps the readers to imagine a heated liquid bubbling appearance like stew of this unfamiliar landscape.

Generally speaking, there are two major reasons why personifications, metaphors, and similes, which were most frequently used in the travel magazines, are effective devices of persuasion.

The first reason is that compared to alliteration and rhymes, these three figurative devices provide the clearer images of places. Alliteration and rhymes present the main characteristics of places without giving detailed description. They simply use the repetition of words’ sounds to increase the memorability of those characteristics (George, 2010). In contrast, personifications, metaphors and similes help the readers to imagine the scenes of places as if they are truly visiting those places with the use of comparison. Personifications help the readers to imagine

appearances, atmospheres and value of places through human attributes; they compare these characteristics of places with the characteristics of humans. Personifications make places seem like people to present physical features and abstract ideas of places. The readers can easily see the pictures of places through familiar features associated with humans. Metaphors and similes describe shapes, sizes, sounds, colors, atmospheres, and values of places through other familiar things; they compare these qualities of places with the features of other well-known things. Metaphors and similes describe unfamiliar physical features and abstract concepts of places by using well-known concrete things. The readers can picture places more readily through their associations with easily recognizable things.

The second reason is that unlike hyperboles, using comparison of personifications, metaphors, and similes can provide the clear images of places without losing credibility of sources. Hyperboles describe places by emphasizing their distinctive characteristics. However, the frequent use of hyperboles can lessen credibility of sources because hyperboles do not state the truth but they are used to magnify the truth (Reinking *et al.*, 1993; Webb, 1993). On the other hand, these three figurative devices -- personifications, metaphors, similes -- help the readers to imagine the images of places in terms of human attributes and other familiar things based on the truth. They use features of humans and familiar things which are similar to those of places to describe places by means of comparison. Personifications give non-human things life-like qualities of their own; human attributes which are related to the features of places are used to describe the true qualities of places. Although metaphors and similes express one thing as something else, their expressions involve the similarities between the true qualities of two different things.

In conclusion, the figurative devices most frequently used in the travel magazines were personifications, metaphors, and similes. These three figurative devices use comparison to describe places as the main strategy. These figurative devices are effective devices of persuasion because they give clear images of places and the comparisons given by these persuasive devices do not lessen the credibility of the sources.

## **What non-figurative devices are frequently used as persuasion in travel magazines?**

There are 513 (82.48%) non-figurative instances found in the travel magazines. These non-figurative instances belong to 11 non-figurative devices which include positive adjectives, second person pronouns, imperative sentences, descriptions, superlative adjectives, intensifiers, modal verbs, comparative adjectives, rhetorical questions, conditional sentences, and testimonials. The major characteristics of these non-figurative devices in the travel magazines are summarized as follows.

### **1. Positive Adjectives**

The purpose of positive adjectives is to persuade the readers to visit places by describing positive characteristics of places. Many of these positive adjectives evoke feelings of ‘extremely good’ and ‘extremely attractive’. For instance, in the sentence ‘This portion of Mulholland is the knife-edge ridge cleaving the valley from the L.A. basin, delivering **magnificent** views on both side’, the writer used the positive adjective *magnificent* to describe the views in Mulholland as being extremely attractive.

### **2. Second Person Pronouns**

The purpose of second person pronouns is to persuade the readers to visit places by making them feel a sense of being involved in those places. There is also the use of possessive and reflexive forms of second person pronoun. For example, in the sentence ‘That night, at **your** hotel, **you**’re grateful for the log fire, and the hot-water bottle that awaits **you** in **your** bed’, the writer used the second person pronoun (you) and the possessive form (your) to make the reader have a sense of involvement in the hotel.

### 3. Imperative Sentences

The purpose of imperative sentences is to persuade the readers to visit places by suggesting directions and interesting activities. Sometimes, a coordinating conjunction or a transition word is used to connect imperative clauses to show a series of directions or activities. For instance, in the sentence ‘**Hunt** for antiques along Petaluma’s downtown Victorian row, and **dine** on seasonal sake-steamed, aged abalone at Michelin-starred Cyrus in Healdsburg’, the writer used two imperative clauses beginning with the verbs *hunt* and *dine* which were connected by the coordinating conjunction *and* to offer many activities in Sonoma County, California.

### 4. Descriptions

The purpose of descriptions is to interest the readers in places by presenting pictures of places to the readers’ minds with the use of verbose writing. For example, in the sentences ‘Pelicans bob on the rolling waves, which are normally measured in inches, not feet. No thundering surf, just the gentle “hurrah-hurrah” from the mellow emerald waters. Sandpipers dart about the flat terrain, pecking at the margin between land and sea while hunting their dinner’, the writer used the technique of verbose writing to give the detail of the charming birds and sea at Siesta Key Beach.

### 5. Superlative Adjectives

The purpose of superlative adjectives is to persuade the readers to visit places by expressing the highest degree of a particular quality to present interesting facts or emphasize positive characteristics of places. For instance, in the sentence ‘There are plenty of reasons to visit Peru: to explore ancient ruins at Machu Picchu, spot some of the world’s **rarest** birds, or trek some of Earth’s **deepest** canyons’, the writer used the superlative adjectives *rarest* and *deepest* to show interesting facts about birds and canyons in Peru.

## 6. Intensifiers

The purpose of intensifiers is to highlight the unique characteristics of places by strengthening the meaning of the adjectives describing the places. For example, in the sentences ‘An elevation change of a few inches yields an **entirely** different habitat. That’s what makes the Everglades so remarkable-nine **distinctly** different ecosystems in an area once dismissed as swamp’, the writer used the intensifiers *entirely* and *distinctly* to emphasize the diversity of environments, animals, and plants in the Everglades.

## 7. Modal Verbs

The purpose of modal verbs is to suggest activities on trips. For example, in the sentences ‘After all, places like L.A. evolve endlessly, so you too **should** always be on the move. On this freewheeling tour of L.A. County, open a window onto the everyday charms. . .’, the writer used the modal verb *should* to suggest taking road trips to experience the charming surroundings in Los Angeles.

## 8. Comparative Adjectives

The purpose of comparative adjectives is to persuade the readers to visit places by expressing a higher degree of a particular quality in comparison to present the better characteristics of the places. For example, in the sentence ‘It is the type of classic Highland scenery that decorates a million tins of souvenir shortbread, and it’s all the **more dramatic** in winter, when the mountains are covered in a layer of snow’, the writer used the comparative adjective *more dramatic* to present a better view of this highland in winter than in other seasons.

## 9. Rhetorical Questions

The purpose of rhetorical questions is to arouse the readers to be interested in the dominant characteristics of places by asking questions. For example, in the

sentences ‘**And this community’s biggest point of pride?** Its spectacular public beach. What’s so extraordinary about Siesta Key Beach is the powdery-soft, alabaster-coloured sand, which fairy glitters in the light’, the writer used the rhetorical question to draw attention from the readers about the important spot of Siesta Key Island.

### 10. Conditional Sentences

The purpose of conditional sentences is to recommend activities or places under different conditions. For example, in the sentence ‘**But if you hit one of those beautiful winter days when the sea is calm and the sky is blue, continue along the coast path for about two miles until it curves into the hidden bay and tiny old harbor of Lamorna Cove**’, the writer recommended the readers to walk along the coast on a nice winter day.

### 11. Testimonials

The purpose of a testimonial is to persuade the readers to visit a place by using a famous person’s quote about the advantage of the place. For example, in the sentence, ‘On leaving the Seychelles in May, **Prince William said he chose the islands because they were a place where “the stewardship of nature is taken seriously”**’, the writer used the quote of Prince William to show the advantage of the Seychelles.

Of these 11 subcategories, the non-figurative devices which were most frequently used were positive adjectives (32.36%), second person pronouns (19.49%), imperative sentences (17.35%), and descriptions (12.09%). These four non-figurative devices can be further divided into two groups based on the persuasive strategies they are associated with, which are the strategy of presenting appealing images of places and the strategy of addressing the readers directly.

Both positive adjectives and descriptions rely on the strategy of presenting appealing images of places. Positive adjectives present sensory experiences of places in an appealing way in five senses: sight, taste, sound, smell, and touch. Examples of positive adjectives include *relaxing*, *stunning*, and *delicious*. These positive adjectives convey the pleasant characteristics of places in the senses of feeling, sight, and taste respectively. Descriptions using verbose writing present vivid appealing pictures of places in senses of sight, taste, sound, smell, and touch to the readers' minds. One example of description is in the sentence 'And birds are everywhere-great herons and snowy egrets wading through the mudflats, pelicans and cormorants in treetops, and large flocks of ibis taking wing in billowing blankets of white'. This description conveys the sense of sight which expresses the detail of attractive birds in Everglades National Park. The readers can clearly see the impressive picture of many kinds of birds doing various activities in different spots in the Everglades in their minds.

Second person pronouns and imperative sentences rely on the strategy of addressing the readers directly. Second person pronouns are used by a writer or a speaker in referring to a person who is communicated with (Summers and Adrian-Vallance, 2007). Thus using second person pronouns in the travel magazines indicates that the writers communicate with the readers directly to make them feel a sense of involvement in activities offered at the places in question. Examples of second person pronouns are in the sentence 'That night, at **your** hotel, **you**'re grateful for the log fire, and the hot-water bottle that awaits **you** in **your** bed'. The second person pronoun (you) and the possessive form (your) are used to make the readers have a sense of being involved in the pleasant situation in this unfamiliar hotel. Imperative sentences, with the understood subject *you*, are used to communicate with the readers directly about where to go and what to do on trips. Examples of imperative forms are in the sentence '**Hunt** for antiques along Petaluma's downtown Victorian row, and **dine** on seasonal sake-steamed, aged abalone at Michelin-starred Cyrus in Healdsburg'. These two imperative clauses are used to recommend the readers what to do in Sonoma County, California.

The main reason why positive adjectives, second person pronouns, imperative sentences, and descriptions, which were most frequently used in the travel magazines, are effective devices of persuasion is that these four non-figurative devices can create motivation for travel.

Positive adjectives and descriptions which present appealing images of places create positive perceptions or positive feelings toward places. Inspiration can be evoked by attracting the readers with positive characteristics (Averill, 1975; Thrash and Elliot, 2003 cited in Kim and Fesenmaier, 2008). Therefore, positive adjectives expressing the positive characteristics of places and descriptions giving the readers impressive pictures of places can encourage the readers to visit destinations.

Second person pronouns and imperative sentences which are used to address the readers directly make the readers feel an involvement with places. 'Involvement is generally referred to as one's motivational state toward an object in which that motivational state is activated by the relevance or importance of the object' (Bloch and Richins, 1983; Rothschild, 1984; Zaichkowsky, 1985 cited in Kim and Fesenmaier, 2008: 4). Therefore, second person pronouns and imperative sentences create motivation for travel.

In conclusion, the non-figurative devices most frequently used in the travel magazines were positive adjectives, second person pronouns, imperative sentences, and descriptions. Positive adjectives and descriptions use the strategy of presenting appealing images of places, which clearly describe places in an appealing way in terms of the five senses. Second person pronouns and imperative sentences use the strategy of addressing the readers directly, which make the readers feel involved with recommended places and activities. These four non-figurative devices are effective means of persuasion because they create motivation for travel.

Additionally, from all 17 figurative and non-figurative persuasive devices found in the samples, positive adjectives were the most frequently used. The main reason for this high frequency is that positive adjectives are easily used to describe

places and readers can understand them clearly. Moreover, it can be said that presenting appealing images of places is the main strategy used in the travel magazines which are the main inspiration of potential tourists.

Moreover, based on the four main types of figurative devices (see page 9), there is no understatement used in the travel magazines. Creating strong positive feelings of readers toward places is the main technique that the travel magazines use to persuade readers to travel. Therefore, understatement using humble expressions to highlight something may be an unsuitable device to arouse the strong feeling that the travel magazines wish to evoke.

### **Limitations and Recommendations**

The results of the present study showed 17 persuasive linguistic devices from both figurative and non-figurative categories found in the travel magazines. The main purpose of these persuasive devices is to persuade the readers to visit the recommended places. However, there are some limitations in this study and further studies are also recommended as follows:

First, as mentioned in Chapter II, persuasive writing can be divided into three main types namely solving a problem, stating an opinion, and proving a theory (Sundem and Pikiewicz, 2006). In the present study, the researcher investigated persuasive devices only in travel magazines which mainly state the opinions of the writers toward places. Moreover, in stating an opinion, there are other persuasive sources such as editorials, books, and reviews. Therefore, there are various sources of persuasive writing that should be further studied to better understand these varieties of persuasive writing when used for different purposes.

Second, the present study selected four travel magazines written in British English and American English but this study did not focus on comparative study between these two written English forms. In addition, there are other travel magazines written in other varieties of English such as Singaporean English, Canadian English,

and South African English. Further comparative studies of persuasive writing in different English forms would lead to better understanding of persuasive writing in travel magazines.

Third, the present study investigated persuasive devices in the four travel magazines, namely Lonely Planet, Condé Nast Traveller, National Geographic Traveler, and Travel + Leisure. In fact, there are countless other travel magazine titles. Further studies of persuasive writing in a larger number of articles in a wider range of titles would enable the identification of more types of persuasive devices and lead to greater understanding of persuasive writing in travel magazines.

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**APPENDIX**

**Appendix Table 1** Some examples of the analyzed data of figurative devices

Figurative Devices							
	similes	metaphors		hyperboles	personifications	alliteration	rhymes
		visible	invisible				
<i>The Perfect Trip Florida</i>							
1. Decked out with swooping curves, racing horizontal bands, wraparound windows, <b>needle-like towers</b> and candy-coloured neon, the architecture was designed to remind visitors that they were on holiday.	✓						
2. <b>Some buildings look like wedding cakes</b> , others like pyramids, and others-such as the Beach Patrol Headquarters, with its brushed-aluminium railings and porthole windows-conjure up the great transatlantic luxury liners.	✓						
3. Some buildings look like wedding cakes, <b>others like pyramids</b> , and others-such as the Beach Patrol Headquarters, with its brushed-aluminium railings and porthole windows-conjure up the great transatlantic luxury liners.	✓						
4. Some buildings look like wedding cakes, others like pyramids, and others-such as the <b>Beach Patrol Headquarters</b> , with its brushed-aluminium railings and porthole windows-conjure up the great transatlantic luxury liners.			✓				

Appendix Table 1 (Continued)

Figurative Devices							
	similes	metaphors		hyperboles	personifications	alliteration	rhymes
		visible	invisible				
5. Though not the finest examples of Deco design-these squat <b>boxes</b> are nothing compared with New York's Chrysler Building-their value lies in the ensemble: it's the world's largest collection of Art Deco architecture, some 1,200 <b>buildings</b> and the entire district was designated on the National Register of Historic Places, becoming America's first historic district comprised entirely of 20th-century buildings.			✓				
6. Once you escape the garishness of Duval street there's a <b>frozen-in-time quality</b> to Old Town.				✓			
7. <b>Life unfurls slowly.</b>				✓			
8. Florida is incredibly flat- <b>like a saucer</b> jutting off the edge of the North American continent	✓						
9. <b>Sandpipers</b> dart about the flat terrain, pecking at the margin between land and sea while hunting their <b>dinner</b> .					✓		
10. Perched at the edge of a wildly productive estuarine reserve that's famous for its oysters and shrimps, the little fishing town of Apalachicola is also <b>the birthplace of manmade ice</b> , invented here in 1851.					✓		

Appendix Table 1 (Continued)

Figurative Devices							
	similes	metaphors		hyperboles	personifications	alliteration	rhymes
		visible	invisible				
11. Modelled in 1830 after colonial-era Philadelphia, with village greens, Gothic churches, <b>salt-box cottages</b> and grand, turreted Queen Anne mansions, the little town has a frozen-in-time quality like a Norman Rockwell painting come to life, a portrait of Americana unspoilt by development.			✓				
12. Modelled in 1830 after colonial-era Philadelphia, with village greens, Gothic churches, salt-box cottages and grand, turreted Queen Anne mansions, the little town has <b>a frozen-in-time quality</b> like a Norman Rockwell painting come to life, a portrait of Americana unspoilt by development.				✓			
13. Modelled in 1830 after colonial-era Philadelphia, with village greens, Gothic churches, salt-box cottages and grand, turreted Queen Anne mansions, the little town has a frozen-in-time quality <b>like a Norman Rockwell painting come to life</b> , a portrait of Americana unspoilt by development.	✓						

**Appendix Table 2** Some examples of the analyzed data of non-figurative devices

Non-Figurative Devices										
	second person pronouns	rhetorical questions	modal verbs	imperative sentences	conditional sentences	positive adjectives	comparative adjectives	superlative adjectives	descriptions	intensifiers
<i>Winter Wanderland</i>										
1. <b>Enjoy</b> it on one of our six walks- and warm up by the fire in a cosy pub at the end.				✓						
2. Enjoy it on one of our six walks- and <b>warm up</b> by the fire in a cosy pub at the end.				✓						
3. Enjoy it on one of our six walks- and warm up by the fire in a <b>cosy</b> pub at the end.						✓				

Appendix Table 2 (Continued)

Non-Figurative Devices										
	second person pronouns	rhetorical questions	modal verbs	imperative sentences	conditional sentences	positive adjectives	comparative adjectives	superlative adjectives	descriptions	intensifiers
4. Walk in the valley of Glen Coe, one of the most beautiful spots in the exhilarating Scottish Highlands.				✓						
5. Walk in the valley of Glen Coe, one of <b>the most beautiful</b> spots in the exhilarating Scottish Highlands.								✓		

Appendix Table 2 (Continued)

Non-Figurative Devices										
	second person pronouns	rhetorical questions	modal verbs	imperative sentences	conditional sentences	positive adjectives	comparative adjectives	superlative adjectives	descriptions	intensifiers
6. Walk in the valley of Glen Coe, one of the most beautiful spots in the <b>exhilarating</b> Scottish Highlands.						✓				
7. Along with Ben Nevis and Loch Lomond, the great valley of Glen Coe is one of Scotland's <b>best-loved</b> locations, home to some of the						✓				

Appendix Table 2 (Continued)

Non-Figurative Devices										
	second person pronouns	rhetorical questions	modal verbs	imperative sentences	conditional sentences	positive adjectives	comparative adjectives	superlative adjectives	descriptions	intensifiers
country's most admired scenery.										
8. Along with Ben Nevis and Loch Lomond, the great valley of Glen Coe is one of Scotland's best-loved locations, home to some of the country's <b>most admired</b> scenery.								✓		

Appendix Table 2 (Continued)

Non-Figurative Devices										
	second person pronouns	rhetorical questions	modal verbs	imperative sentences	conditional sentences	positive adjectives	comparative adjectives	superlative adjectives	descriptions	intensifiers
9. Carved out by giant glaciers back in the Ice Age, the glen's sheer size is immediately <b>impressive</b> .						✓				
10. The steep-sided valley walls on either side appear almost vertical, topped on the northern side by the serrations of the Aonach Eagach ridge and on the south by the									✓	

Appendix Table 2 (Continued)

Non-Figurative Devices										
	second person pronouns	rhetorical questions	modal verbs	imperative sentences	conditional sentences	positive adjectives	comparative adjectives	superlative adjectives	descriptions	intensifiers
trio of peaks known as the Three Sisters. Nearby is the conical summit of Buachaille Etive Mor.										
11. It is the type of classic Highland scenery that decorates a million tins of souvenir shortbread, and it's all the <b>more dramatic</b> in winter, when the							✓			

Appendix Table 2 (Continued)

Non-Figurative Devices										
	second person pronouns	rhetorical questions	modal verbs	imperative sentences	conditional sentences	positive adjectives	comparative adjectives	superlative adjectives	descriptions	intensifiers
mountains are covered in a layer of snow.										
12. <b>Start</b> at the An Torr car park, just off the A82 which runs through the glen.				✓						
13. From here, <b>you</b> simply keep heading up the glen.	✓									
14. Sometimes <b>you</b> can follow the old road that runs roughly parallel to	✓									

**Appendix Table 2** (Continued)

Non-Figurative Devices										
	second person pronouns	rhetorical questions	modal verbs	imperative sentences	conditional sentences	positive adjectives	comparative adjectives	superlative adjectives	descriptions	intensifiers
the A82, while other times you have to walk beside the main road itself.										
15. Sometimes you can follow the old road that runs roughly parallel to the A82, while other times <b>you</b> have to walk beside the main road itself.	✓									

Appendix Table 2 (Continued)

Non-Figurative Devices										
	second person pronouns	rhetorical questions	modal verbs	imperative sentences	conditional sentences	positive adjectives	comparative adjectives	superlative adjectives	descriptions	intensifiers
16. This is an “ out-and-back” route, so <b>continue</b> walking for as long as you like, but a great spot to aim for is the viewpoint over Glen Coe near Allt-na-ruigh, about 21/2 miles along the route.				✓						
17. This is an “ out-and-back” route, so continue walking for										

Appendix Table 2 (Continued)

Non-Figurative Devices										
	second person pronouns	rhetorical questions	modal verbs	imperative sentences	conditional sentences	positive adjectives	comparative adjectives	superlative adjectives	descriptions	intensifiers
as long as <b>you</b> like, but a great spot to aim for is the viewpoint over Glen Coe near Allt-na-ruigh, about 21/2 miles along the route.	✓									
18. This is an “ out-and-back” route, so continue walking for as long as you like, but a <b>great</b> spot to aim for is the						1943 ✓				

Appendix Table 2 (Continued)

Non-Figurative Devices										
	second person pronouns	rhetorical questions	modal verbs	imperative sentences	conditional sentences	positive adjectives	comparative adjectives	superlative adjectives	descriptions	intensifiers
viewpoint over Glen Coe near Allt-na-ruigh, about 21/2 miles along the route.										
19. After walking back down the glen, <b>top off</b> your day in the Clachaig Inn, a spot long favoured by hikers and climbers.				✓						

**Appendix Table 2** (Continued)

<b>Non-Figurative Devices</b>										
	<b>second person pronouns</b>	<b>rhetorical questions</b>	<b>modal verbs</b>	<b>imperative sentences</b>	<b>conditional sentences</b>	<b>positive adjectives</b>	<b>comparative adjectives</b>	<b>superlative adjectives</b>	<b>descriptions</b>	<b>intensifiers</b>
20. After walking back down the glen, top off <b>your</b> day in the Clachaig Inn, a spot long favoured by hikers and climbers.	✓									

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