





To represent Asia is quite impossible without narrowing the scope to smaller component parts in terms of sub regions. In fact, Birch, Schirato & Srivastara (2001) argue that as the academia creates various specializations, for example, Area Studies, there are limitations on its scope. The challenge is

Southeast Asia as site of commodification. By tracing changes in the global economy and in Southeast Asian national political economies, they claim that these have led to new forms of commodity production and new commodities. These developments result in alignments among producers, distributors, and consumers that are affecting people and nature throughout the region.

Computer networks, digital technologies and interactive media technologies are among the developments changing the media landscape. One of the interesting issues of media discourse is the ability of the media to deliver messages to the reader and how readers interact with it. Readers are not just passive sponges that soak up the many messages that they get in media. Instead they actively interpret media messages. But media messages need relevant resources available to readers to comprehend these messages. The interpretive skills that people carry with them to their viewing, listening, and reading are shaped by aspects of social structure. Therefore, in constructing their own individual interpretations of the media, people draw upon from different resources and experiences that are shaped by social factors (Croteau & Hoynes, 1997).

### **Functions of language and slogans**

Slogans or taglines are compact representation of a product or service. Similar to headlines in news reports, slogans muivevevevevevegliveve

which ultimately results in different logics of reading. Similarly, the interpretation of the social world as a sign in semiotics becomes interdisciplinary. Multimodality has its own grammar and registers. In the context of advertising, visuals are very salient and they are read or interpreted in various ways.

Advertising is synonymous to selling products and services, and there is a proliferation of what Fairclough (1995) categorizes as promotional genres. These include brands, organizations, political parties, countries, regions, cities, and even individuals. The primary purpose of promotional

must still deal with cultura

certain rhetorical expectations, and as corporate culture crosses international boundaries, strategies like globalization, localization, and collaboration are used.

Language is used in communication and an apt symbol of globalization, competition, diversification, progress, and identity. Crystal (2003) argues that as new varieties of English emerge with the penetration of the Internet, there is an increasing public recognition of the global and hegemonic position of English. Fairclough (2006, p. 2) notes that non-English countries (citing

words surfaced in the business discourse in

jargon in the business disco

As products and services spread through various channels of communication and markets, what do consumers remember? Percy (2003, p. 15) stresses the mutual relationship of branding and what someone knows, thinks, and feels about a

advertisiti

of globalization, branding also takes language as crucial. However Abosag and Ramadan (2016) stress that culturally embedded brands that provide an Asian experience may find Asian platforms are the most effective channel to engage consumers with their brands.

### **Branding and tourism**

The idea of branding has been applied for consumer products, but applying branding for a determine whether tourism slogans motivate people to visit the countries, Wulandari (2016) found that the slogan itself will not really affect decision-making process when it comes on choosing a tourism destination. But in the era where countries are competing to gain attention from their potential tourists, having a slogan that is catchy and remarkable will surely help a destination to be more popular











The slogan presupposes that Philippines is being compared to other countries with the adjective *It's fun in the Philippines* would have sufficed, but the comparative mode gives the concept of competition. Consumers create mental images of the other countries they have visited and perhaps decide to try the Philippines for more fun (See Table 1 for the denotative meanings).

#### *The sunny side of life*

The slogan implies that life has a gloomy side. One way to change that is to go to Maldives for its *sunny side*. Even without the word Maldives in the slogan, the concept portrays *life* as the source domain and *sunny side* as the target domain. Everything in Maldives is bright, brilliant, and clear.

#### *Refreshingly Sri Lanka*

The slogan paints a picture of a tourist who is burnt out and thirsty, and Sri Lanka will rejuvenate him/her and quench his/her thirst. What can be inferred from this is the concept in the target domain, *refreshingly*, or the experience of a delightful stay in Sri Lanka, the source domain, rather than in other countries.

#### *The use of metonymy*

Metonymy is common in four country tourism slogans, which use another word to stand in for *Kingdom of Wonder* *Oasis*  
*on the great silk road* *The Land of Wonders* *Land of Gross National*  
*Happiness. Kingdom* *oasis* is clearly associated with water in the  
 desert of Kyrgyzstan, thus giving safety and sustenance to travelers; *land* accentuates the mystery of Kazakhstan; and *land* encompasses the philosophy of Bhutan.

#### *The use of hyperbole*

*Asia's world city* *Timeless charm.* *Endless discovery;* Hong  
 The overstated experience allures the consumer to believing that it is infinite, yet its effect is satisfying once the limits of discovery, charm, and worldly trimmings are met.

### **Slogans as linguistic representations of Asia**

Ten (10) countries - Indonesia, Philippines, Mongolia, India, Thailand, Singapore, Bangladesh, Myanmar, Sri Lanka, and Brunei use national labeling in their tourism slogans while three (3) countries, Hong Kong, Malaysia, and Taiwan use Asia as a continental labeling.

In the survey population of 90, 66.67% of respondents have agreed that national slogans are effective in lobbying tourism in the ASEAN countries. Only 20% of the total number of respondents have said that there is no actual connection between the country and the slogan they stand for and the rest failed to cast an answer. Discussed below are some categories of adjectives used by the respondents in order to describe how these slogans affect the attraction-level of tourists to visit a particular country.

#### *Catchy, effective and slogan influence*

In this particular category, respondents used the adjectives *catchy*, *attractive*, and *influential* in order to convey how a particular slogan is important, especially when a country vies for tourists to particular nation vis-à-vis the slogans that they use for their tourism campaigns. For instance, the adjective *effective* implies that the respondent has been persuaded that the slogan actually works in delivering the things that a country could offer. The adjective *influential* for example, indicates the kind of influence a slogan could bring to a particular person in persuading him/her to visit a country.

*Creative, lengthy and the aesthetics of slogans*

This category of adjectives used by the respondents is different from the first one, because instead of conveying their persuasion on the slogan they have read, these adjectives tend to describe and comment on how a particular slogan is written or built. For example, the adjective *lengthy* is used to describe a slogan which is full of words. That is, it describes the length of the slogan being written.

*Unique*



Swales, J.M. (1999). *Genre analysis: English in academic and research settings*. UK: Cambridge University Press.

Thubron, C. (2008). *The lost heart of Asia*. New York: Harper Perennial.

